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BRITANNIA'S GROWTH AND GREATNESS

A. J. BERRY, M.A.

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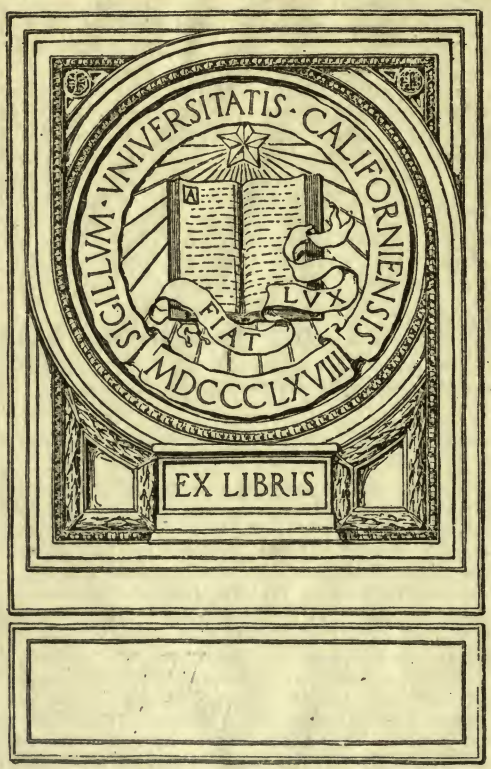

SOUTH AFRICA
English Miles
50 0 50 100 150
British possessions shown dotted or underlined.
BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA COMPANY
GERMAN WEST AFRICA
GREAT NAMAQUALAND
TRANSVAAL
ORANGE RIVER COLONY
CAPE COLONY
NATAL
KAFFRARIA
BASUTO LAND
ZULU LAND
SWAZILAND
PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS
GRIQUALAND WEST
GRIQUALAND EAST
Kalahari Desert
Great Bushman Land
Great Karroo
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
Walfish Bay
CAPE TOWN
Johannesburg
Pretoria
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
Mafeking
Port Elizabeth
East London
Durban
Maritzburg
Delagoa Bay
Algoa Bay
Orange R.
Vaal R.
R. Limpopo
C. of Good Hope
C. Agulhas


AUSTRALIA
Present Day.
ENGLAND
SAME SCALE
TIMOR SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
CORAL SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
TASMAN SEA
SUMBAWA
FLORES
TIMOR
SANDALWOOD
MELVILLE I.
BATHURST I.
P. Essington
PT. DALE
Palmerston
Torres Strait
THURSDAY I.
C. YORK
NEW GUINEA
LOUISIADE ARCHIPELAGO
C. ARNHEM
GULF OF CARPENTARIA
GROOTE EYLANDT
CAPE YORK PENA.
Princess Charlotte Bay
C. MELVILLE
Cooktown
Cairns
Geraldton
Cardwell
HINCHINBROOK I.
Townsville
Mt. Elliot
Glenelg
Kimberley
District
Derby
Victoria
Daly
Fitzroy
Ord
Mitchell
Division
Northern
Territory
Condon
North-West Div.
Mt Macpherson
Mt. Bruce
WESTERN
AUSTRALIA
L. Mc Donald
L. Amadeus
Mt. Leichhardt
Central Mt. Stuart
Mt. Udor
Mt. Hopwood
Hughenden
Broad Sd.
Rockhampton
Tropic of Capricorn
Maryborough
GT. SANDY I.
Gascoyne
Gascoyne Div.
Murchison
Victoria Dist.
Mt Charles
Mt. Whitby
Mt. Olga
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
Eastern Div.
Salt Marshes
L. Barlee
Geraldton
Kalgoorlie
Coolgardie
L. Lefroy
L. EYRE
Diamantina
Cooper
Barcoo
Warrego
Nive
QUEENSLAND
BRISBANE
Moreton Bay
PT. DANGER
Clarence
Farina
L. Torrens
Eucla
Port Augusta
Bourke
NEW SOUTH WALES
Darling
Lachlan
Murray
Murrumbidgee
SYDNEY
Newcastle
Port Jackson
PERTH
York
Freemantle
Peel
Great Australian Bight
Albany
Kg. George Sd.
ADELAIDE
Spencer G.
KANGAROO I.
Encounter B.
Deniliquin
Albury
Echuca
Bendigo
VICTORIA
Ballarat
MELBOURNE
C. HOWE
LD. HOWE I.
Pt. Phillip
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FURNEAUX I.
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The Industrial Revolution

A Primer of Modern Social and Industrial History. By GEORGE COLLAR, B.A., B.Sc. (Lond.). With 70 black-and-white illustrations. 150 pp. Price **1s.** net.

The chief aim of the author of this book has been to produce a survey of the economical progress of the country since about 1760. Details of the home life of the worker and his family, and of the steady improvement in their condition, are also included.

BRITANNIA'S GROWTH AND GREATNESS



Photo by *N.Z. Govt. Tourist Department.*

THE BOILING POOL, WAIRAKEI.

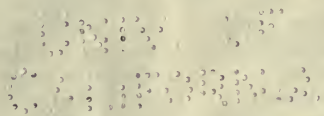
Britannia's Growth and Greatness

An Historical Geography of the British Empire

By

A. J. Berry, M.A. (Oxon.)

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION FOR PRESTON; AUTHOR OF "EUROPA'S CHILDHOOD AND GROWTH," "THE STORY OF PRESTON," "VISUAL AND OBSERVATIONAL ARITHMETIC," ETC., ETC.



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BRITANNIA'S GROWTH AND GREATNESS.

CHAPTER I.

Introduction.

MAN, by his ability to apply his intelligence in many directions, rises far above the other members of the animal world, which are capable of showing their skill in a few directions only ; and yet, in their restricted circle of effort and achievement, beasts, birds, and insects often rival man in his proudest works.

The beaver, by the cleverness with which it can construct a dam, and obstruct the course of a stream, is worthy of a place beside a builder or engineer. The bird has, in recent years, been more or less successfully copied by those who have made flying-machines, but it is probable that the most experienced and dauntless of airmen will never rival the original model in skill, just as the best human swimmer in the world falls far behind the whale in ability to turn, dive, or move through the water.

But there are forms of animal intelligence which man reaches only when he has advanced some way along the path of civilization. Among these are the "provision for the morrow," and the performance of work through the combination of individuals.

Ants have an instinct which bids them provide for a "rainy day," and they have also what is perhaps the

higher faculty of being able to bring whole armies into the field.

Bees, likewise, have the same power of thought for the future, and, in addition, exhibit remarkable foresight in sending forth swarms or colonies from the parent hive.

In this book we shall read of various "swarmings" undertaken by branches of the British race at different times. But such swarmings will be found to belong to a higher order of intelligence than that possessed by bees. The latter wait till there is the danger of overcrowding the old home. Human swarmings have usually been the result of looking some distance ahead, when companies have left the old land before it has become overstocked. Moreover, the migrations have not been always in companies. Men sometimes have dropped out of the parent hive and made their way elsewhere singly.

The stories of human swarmings since the world began make most interesting reading. The earliest home of the human race is to be found in Asia, and from this centre the various families set off. That which travelled to the north-east reached America by way of Alaska. Another branch, making a journey by the land which now forms the Malay Archipelago, arrived at Australia. A third body moving through Arabia and Abyssinia found a home in the heart of Africa, and probably produced the negro race.

Most interesting of all, because it is the family to which the British belong, was the migration of the great Aryan race, which spread abroad its branches into India, Persia, and various parts of Europe.

The early migrations were followed by periods of settlement and rest, and then again the "swarming" was vigorously renewed. The break-up of the Roman Empire witnessed another widespread redistribution of

the races of Europe. Following this, the Norsemen, from their home in the North-west of the Continent, swept out in all directions, making an extensive system of settlements; and it may be that the Norse blood which was blended with that of the Anglo-Saxons at this time will account for the success which has attended the British efforts at colonization.

In looking at the various migrations that have taken place from Britain, we shall not only have to look at the quarters of the world to which the different companies directed their steps, but have to observe as well the motives that have influenced the various movements.

At times, settlers have been led to fix on new homes because of their quest for the products of foreign lands. At other times, men of adventurous spirit have been wishful of enjoying the freedom and change which belong to unoccupied districts.

Sometimes migrations have been undertaken because men of great determination have been anxious to find a home where their strong religious convictions could be held without risk of outside interference or persecution.

Yet again, there have been occasions when the British Government, anxious to occupy vacant lands, so as to prevent appropriation by unfriendly nations, have sent on in advance criminals to be turned into colonists.

Lastly, and most far-reaching of all, there has been the attraction which lands of great resource offer to those who do not shrink from work, and who yet find no prospects at home, and it is to such that established colonies are wont to extend a helping hand.

The story of British colonization deals thus with the most varied springs of human action. It is concerned with all sorts and conditions of men. High-minded souls like Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Humphry Gilbert

stand side by side with the roughest of buccaneers. Private adventurers have their place along with chartered companies. Statesmen like Warren Hastings have completed the work begun by soldiers like Robert Clive. Gold-seekers have led the way for farmers. Missionaries have rivalled traders in their desire to win new fields of enterprise.

The result has been that gentleman and sea-robber, private trader and chartered company, statesman and soldier, miner and farmer, missionary and merchant, have more or less unconsciously co-operated to make the British Empire the grandest the world has ever seen.

CHAPTER II.

The Wonderland of the East (Part I).

THE stories of the Arabian Nights present to us, in glowing colours, pictures of eastern wealth and magnificence. Yet the dazzling riches and charming scenes which they paint are not to be found in Arabia itself, a land with extensive sandy wastes and waterless deserts. The scenes that suggested the stories must be looked for outside the limits of Arabia, and we must turn to the neighbouring land of India for their probable source.

It may have been that the very greyness and poverty of their own land made the Arabians seek for more favoured places elsewhere, and thus induced them to trust their lives to the deep, and sail to other shores for the wealth of which their own country stood in need.

Possibly the name, Arabian Sea, was given during these times, when the Arabs used to direct their small ships to the western or Malabar coast of India, there to obtain the pepper, the cinnamon, the sandal-wood, and

the other valuable merchandise which could be had in great plenty.

The sailors who made these voyages could not fail to have been struck by the contrast between their own arid seaboard and the well-watered Malabar coasts fringed with feathery cocoa-nut palms.

Slowly, there went through the inhabited world the whisper that towards the rising sun there was a land of inexhaustible wealth. Nay, the whispers were shown to depend on something solid, for spices and precious stones were shown as a part of its produce. The wonderful tales described woods laden with perfume, and men who could produce tissues of finest workmanship, but, to those far-off, the land was ever one of mystery.

In their turn, the people of Western Europe came to hear of the wonderland of the East, and began to ask for the pepper which it produced, for it gave a flavour to their meat, much of which was salted.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, a way was found by which the nations of Europe could reach this rich land by travelling over the sea. The use of the mariner's compass had, at this time, made it possible for navigators to sail beyond sight of land, and the Portuguese, who had taken an active part in expelling the Moors from Europe, were anxious to follow up their success by finding the way to India, and gaining possession of the secret which had for long years been solely the property of the Moors.

For many years they applied themselves to the problem of the route to India round the coast of Africa, and the naming of the Cape of Good Hope tells of the expectations of Prince Henry of Portugal, who saw, in the turning of the coast line at this point, a chance for the fulfilment of his dearest hopes.

It was with the same desire to discover a way to India that Columbus, in the interests of Spain, set sail westwards, and, on reaching land, thought he had arrived at the object of his search. His mistake is still retained in the name given to the lands he discovered; though, to avoid confusion, the terms "west" and "east" have to be used to distinguish the Indies of their respective spheres.

We shall see as we proceed that, though other possessions came in their path, India was for many years the goal of the nations of Western Europe; and Britain, which secured the prize in the end, found that her chief lines of action were laid down for her in consequence.

But, before we can understand the condition of India at the time when the British reached it by way of the sea, we must know something of those people who went there to conquer the land before them—nay, we must go still further back, and try to find out whether the land contains any secrets about its own formation.

CHAPTER III.

The Wonderland of the East (Part II).

THE present map of India does not give a correct idea of what the land was like in early times, yet much that still remains will give indications of what long ago passed away.

Let us try to gain a picture of the former shape of the land. First, there is good reason to believe that it was joined to Africa, and that the "horn" of that continent was continued across the intervening waters. There are still remnants of the land which has been submerged in

the island of Socotra and in the groups known as the Maldives and Laccadives.

But, while some land has disappeared, other has been formed, and the latter is to be found in the district which is watered by the rivers Indus and Ganges.

In the world's childhood, the triangular mass of land belonging to India ended at the Aravalli and Vindhya Ranges. An extension of the Persian Gulf flowed over what is now the plain of the Indus and Ganges. Traces of these times can still be found in the sand dunes and salt-beds of the Great Indian Desert.

The region which extends from India eastwards to New Zealand is the great volcanic region of the world, and, while the world was still young, there came a period of terrible convulsions which rent the rocks and tore apart lands hitherto connected.

Hills were thrown up, and over the country was poured the products of the earth's internal fires. At this time were formed the Western Ghats, and over some 200,000 square miles of the land known as the Deccan was spread volcanic rock to a depth of thousands of feet.

Many of you will remember how the fire-made rocks in Scotland, such as Stirling, Edinburgh, and Dumbarton, became the sites of castles; and the square-cut peaks of the Western Ghats, showing in their shape their volcanic formation, became in the same way natural fastnesses which, as we shall see later, were seized upon by the Mahrattas for their hill forts. Just as the volcanic rock in Ireland suggested such names as "Giant's Organ" and "Chimney Tops" to portions of the Giant's Causeway, so a similar splitting of the trap rock in the western hills of India gave them the name of *Ghats*, that is, "stairs."

What is much more important, the rock of the Deccan

crumbles from the effects of the weather, and thus forms a fertile black soil, which is unsurpassed throughout the whole world for the cultivation of cotton and wheat.

The violent commotions of Nature were followed by a period of adjustments, in which, through a long succession of years, there rose out of the sea, north of the Deccan, the mighty heights now known as the Himalayas. Their stupendous height made them the inexhaustible treasury of snow, and so they gave birth to the rivers which began to wear away the mountain rocks and carry their off-scourings to the sea.

Little by little these rivers filled up the intervening channel between the hills and the Deccan with this "dust from the mountains," and their silent work is still proceeding. It can be read in the curves of land which are being pushed out around the river mouths, and can be traced also in the fact that there is not a single boulder or pebble to be found in the whole of the district which stretches from the delta of the Indus to that of the Ganges.

Yet another change followed the uplifting of the mountains and the silting-up of the plain. This time, a large portion of the plain began to dry up. Rivers which had once fed the Indus failed, though their beds still exist to tell of their former work. Land that was once well-watered and fertile became desert and unfit for cultivation.

What had caused this change is not known, but it may have been the same cause which in Africa produced the drying up to form the great Sahara. Whether this was so or not, one thing is certain—that the deserts in both continents have wrought far-reaching effects.

CHAPTER IV.

The Wonderland of the East (Part III).

WHEREVER there is an abundance of rain in tropical lands, there forests thrive, and many examples of this truth are supplied in India. Its chief rain-bearing wind is the one which blows from the south-west, and the hills which obstruct this are deluged with water, and thus support huge forests.

An examination of the map will lead us to suppose that the areas of heaviest rainfall in India would be near the Himalayas, the Vindhya Range, and the Western Ghats. These prove also to be the regions of densest forests.

The magnificence of the forests which clothe the Himalayas is beyond description. During the period of British rule, hill stations have been developed at Simla and Darjeeling, and the attractions which each possesses through its climate are enhanced by the charms of its beautiful trees. In May, the hills about Simla are one scarlet mass of rhododendron trees, while at Darjeeling the beauty is derived from the tree-ferns and bamboos.

At the foot of the Central Himalayas is the densely forested tract called the Terai, which includes some of the thickest jungle in the whole of India. The Vindhya Range is also possessed of such a thick growth of forest and jungle that, before it was pierced in modern times by roads and railways, it formed an impassable barrier between Northern India and the Deccan.

The Western Ghats are drenched with the torrents which they bring down from the clouds, and so their slopes towards the Malabar or western coast are clothed with trees, especially palms, which shoot heavenwards like darts

and supply the inhabitants with food, drink, clothing, furniture and utensils of all kinds. On the summits of the hills are to be found the teak tree, a species of oak which is the "king of the forests" and the "prince of timber."

Eastward of the hills, where the rain is less abundant, there flourishes the bamboo, which is to the hill-man of the Deccan what the palm is to the dweller along the western shores. He looks to the bamboo for the materials wherewith to build his home or make his forts. His own rods for fishing and his wife's tools for weaving are made of bamboo. His pipe by day, and his pillow by night are made from it, and its tender shoots provide him with many a meal. In fact, so essential is it to his existence that he wonders how it is possible for men in other lands to live without it.

In our last chapter, we spoke of India as a continent, and this was because it comprises so many various districts, and so many different races of people. The latter are the descendants of the black race, the yellow race, and the white.

The black people, who resemble the natives of Australia, were the original inhabitants. Besides dark skins, they have flat noses and thick lips. Retreating before the invasion of the white man, they found a refuge in the forests, mountains, and jungles.

Here they had no chance of obtaining any knowledge of husbandry, and to this day they know little of the cultivation of the soil. The most ignorant among them content themselves with scratching the soil with sticks, so that they may plant their seeds in the shallow furrows thus formed.

Till they were stopped from wantonly destroying the forests, they would burn down whole tracts in order to



By permission of *The Indian Tea Association.*

HOEING TEA IN ASSAM.

enrich the soil with the ashes, raise their crops from the land thus prepared, and then move off elsewhere to repeat the process the following season.

Yet their life amid the forest and jungle gave them a knowledge of wild animals which was astounding. They often developed their powers of observation to such an extent that every sound in the forest had a meaning for them. Every footmark, every displaced pebble, and every broken blade of grass told them what beast had passed and how long it was ago. Their hardy lives made them capable of meeting exposure in unwholesome places, so that they are in great demand everywhere, whether for hoeing tea in Assam, for cutting rice among the swamps of Eastern Bengal, or for working as scavengers in the streets of Calcutta.

They can be trained to become hard-working, steadfast servants, and helped to recruit the sepoy or native regiments with which the British conquered their first provinces in India.

CHAPTER V.

The Aryans (Part I).

THE history of India falls into four well-marked periods. The first deals with the time before the white race known as the Aryans reached the land. It includes the ages when great changes were taking place in the build of the country, and also the time when the black race was in possession.

Next comes the period which belongs to the Aryans, who displaced their black-skinned predecessors and drove them into the mountain fastnesses and jungle swamps.

The third period deals with the coming of the Mohammedans, who governed as soldiers and conquerors, and tried to make converts to the faith of Islam. The fourth and last period belongs to the rule of the British, who came as merchants and traders.

In this chapter we will consider the Aryans, who are said to have acquired their name because they were "ploughers" of the soil; and their earliest writings show them as a simple, homely people, whose whole thoughts and welfare were wrapped up in the cultivation of the land.

Their work required them to be close observers of the operations of Nature, and with these they made themselves specially familiar.

The Aryans entered India through the Khyber Pass; that is, they came from a country with a severe climate to a land which looked towards the south, a land parched by the fiercest rays of the sun and cut off from the cool winds of the north by the highest range in the world. Thus their need was always water. Where water was unstinted, life abounded. Where drought occurred, there also discomfort and desolation prevailed, and so those portions of Nature's system which ministered to the refreshing of the land became objects of reverence and worship.

What happens in India, when water is scarce, can be seen in the land of the Punjab which is outside the range of the influence of the rivers. There, when the sun's rays are not of a dazzling brightness, a yellow haze fills the air, and so dry are the roads that they have to be paved with straw to keep down the dust and sand.

Thus the Aryans, in seeking a name for the Himalayas, seized not upon their enormous mass and overwhelming height as their most striking features, but upon the fact

that they were the "abodes of snow," which were ever able to send cooling waters to the thirsty plains below. The mountains became for them the home of their gods.

As the Aryans emerged from the Khyber Pass, they followed the valley of the river Kabul till it joined a mountain-born river swirling down through deep gorges and rugged clefts. To this noisy river they gave the name of *Sindu*, that is, "the rusher." Later it became changed into *Hindu*, and then into *Indus*, and in time the river gave its name to the whole land.

Other waters come from the mountains to join the Indus, and on account of their enormous value they were regarded as sacred. To the early Aryans the most sacred stream was one which flowed into the Sutlej, a tributary of the Indus. This stream disappeared, perhaps when the extensive drying-up of the west took place; the basin of the Ganges, the moistest of all lands, then became the region of greatest sanctity.

Down to the present day, the Ganges has continued to be the most holy of Hindu rivers. It sustains the crops of the Hindus, and waters their rice-fields, so that it is even more than a goddess. It is their Divine Mother: its fall from the rocks of the Himalayas is like "a pearl necklace when the string is broken."

Not only is the river itself sacred, but every spot along its banks is hallowed. Of special sanctity are its sharp turnings and the junctions with its tributaries. These sites were marked out for the towns in its basin; in fact, religion has had a larger share in the establishment of cities in India than in any other country in the world.

The sanctity of the Brahmaputra is shown in its title, which means "the son of God."

The great tableland of the Deccan which slopes away from the western to the eastern coast of India, is ofttimes dry and subject to famine, so that the rivers which rise in the Western Ghats and flow into the Bay of Bengal are blessed and sanctified.

Chief among these is the Kistna, whose source, somewhat strangely, has been chosen during the period of British rule as the hill seat of the Bombay Government in the hot weather.

The Cauvery has such a fertilizing influence that, like the Nile, it indicates to the eye the regions reached by its waters and those beyond their influence. Owing to its value it is known as the Southern Ganges, and people in the neighbourhood declare that its northern namesake comes each year by a subterranean channel to renew its virtue in the south.

The Mahanadi is responsible for the formation of the sacred land of Orissa, in which stands the renowned temple of Jagannath, which is of such sanctity that it is said : " Thrice blessed is he whose good fortune it is to die in sight of the gate of heaven."

Just as the Ganges is said to be an underground branch of the Cauvery, so the Godavari is stated to be a subterranean branch of the Ganges, and people therefore come to bathe in its waters, just as they do in the stream which they call its parent.

The Narbada has a reputation which resembles the others. Its very pebbles are sacred and are worn as charms by the worshippers of Siva, the " destroyer of life." To the Hindu there is no more sacred oath than that taken in the middle of the Narbada, while he holds in his right hand a few drops of its water.

CHAPTER VI.

The Aryans (Part II).

Most of us may be tempted to think that the Aryans were ignorant and simple, because they were accustomed to reverence the streams and mountains of India. Yet they were closely related to the English, and were like them not only in colour, but in the way they devoted themselves to the cultivation of the land.

The way in which both the Saxons and the Aryans spoke of their yearly round shows how closely they were attached to the soil. The Saxons called June the meadow-month, and July the hay-month, and had names for the other months of the year which referred to their life on the farm.

In like manner the Aryans called May and June the "season of sweats"—the time when the roads and fields everywhere were covered with dust, when the heat was so intense that the dense jungles and bamboo groves became ignited. Similarly they had names for the periods of drenching rains and the time of harvest.

Yet, though fire in the dry season might work great havoc and destruction, the Aryans recognized that usually it was among their most generous benefactors. Under the name of *Agni,* which you will notice is very much like our word "ignite," they worshipped fire.

We have already seen how they began to worship the Himalayas with their crowns of winter snow and fields of ice, but even with the help from this source there was something else needed for the watering of the land. This additional help was provided in the torrents of rain which accompanied the south-west monsoon.

Monsoon means "season," and the wind gains its name from the regularity with which it visits the southern lands of Asia. Its coming, which can be watched from the Western Ghats, provides some of the most majestic of earthly sights. The storm clouds are seen to gather out of the sea, and, like "elephants in battle," move slowly towards the land till the mountains and valleys become wrapped in darkness. When the clouds strike the hills, the thunder peals forth, the lightnings flash from peak to peak, the whirlwind bursts in all its fury, and the rain descends in sheets. Then the clouds are rent asunder, the light of day returns, and the day closes with Nature bathing the whole scene in floods of beauty.

The Hindus watch for the coming of the monsoon as the Egyptians watch for the rising of the Nile, for the least irregularity in its appearance is usually attended with disaster. If its coming is delayed, the rivers and canals dry up, the parched land fails to produce its crops, famine becomes a certainty, and millions of lives are endangered.

It is small wonder, therefore, that the Aryans looked to Indra, the "Thunderer," for his timely aid, and made fervent prayers to the storm gods to take pity on them and not pass them by.

The path of the monsoon in India can be traced from the vegetable and animal life. The wind will pass over a flat country, and not expend a single shower. On the other hand, when its course is interrupted by mountains, it will discharge itself in a deluge.

Assam, which is, as it were, on a raised platform of the Himalayas, with other ridges towering up close at their background, has the greatest rainfall in the whole world. The neighbouring district of Eastern Bengal is charged with so much vapour that it is one of the dampest and greenest regions on the face of the earth. It is the land

of the rice swamps and tangled jungles, the land of the tiger and the serpent.

On the other hand, the various ranges of hills on the north-west bring down the rain on their slopes wherever the monsoon strikes them, so that on the opposite slope there is a well-marked rain-shadow. In those cases the dryness of the air makes the plain treeless, and even desert, so that it is necessary to employ the camel as a beast of burden.

There is a similar set of conditions in the Deccan, though there the shadow of dryness is not so strongly marked. The Malabar coast, backed by the compact barrier of the Western Ghats, is drenched with the torrents of rain from the monsoon, while, in comparison, the plains to the east of the hills are rainless and dry.

CHAPTER VII.

The Aryans (Part III).

When the Saxons came to Britain, they drove the older inhabitants away into the hills and woods of the west. In like manner the Aryans, in their conquest of India, displaced the black race from the open country, and drove them towards the south.

While the black men were, therefore, confined to the forest and jungle, the Aryans proceeded to clear the land and till the soil. They were devoted to agriculture, and India was to them a prize indeed. Moreover, the Aryan love of husbandry has been handed down through all succeeding generations, so that, at the present time, the Hindus who are the descendants of the Aryans live in the villages, and scarcely ever set foot in a town.

India is able from its own lands to supply, with a

bountiful hand, food for vast numbers of people. Three plants in great demand in modern times are natives of its soil. These are the cotton plant, the sugar-cane, and the tea-plant.

Herodotus, the "father of historians," in his chapter on India, when speaking of the cotton plant, says: "There



Photo by *W. G. Freeman.*

THE BREAD FRUIT.

are trees, which grow wild there, the fruit whereof is a wool exceeding in beauty and goodness that of the sheep. The natives make their clothes of this tree-wool."

What a wonderful provision was this cotton plant in a land where the heat often resembles that of a furnace!

When we know that the sugar-cane has its home in India, we are not surprised to learn that it is from the

Indian word *sakkara* that all the names for this article in European languages have been adopted. Moreover, however remote the period upon which we fix, we cannot arrive at a point in Indian history when the inhabitants were not in the habit of boiling down the sugar-cane in order to extract its juice.

For a time, the tea plant in India was allowed to fall into neglect, but, since the rule of the British began, Indian supplies have outstripped those of the Chinese.

Among the trees of India, the banyan holds a distinguished place, since it can form a grove in itself. From a single root, it extends into a vast green temple of numerous halls, each consisting of a shady bower, so that early man was often provided with a ready-made shelter. The largest banyan tree of which there is any record was sufficiently large to give cover, on occasion, to 6,000 men.

The use of the cocoa-nut palm and of the bamboo for food has already been noticed. Other trees which provide food are the banana and the bread-fruit tree. In India Nature is most bountiful in her gifts of vegetable life, and provides sustenance for animals of all kinds.

Many of the animals are dangerous to mankind, but the most dreaded of all are the snakes. The loss of life in India from the ravages of tigers and other wild beasts is but small compared with the loss caused by the serpent family. These reptiles are perhaps more numerous in India than in any other country of the globe, and the scorching sun ensures them many opportunities for their deadly work. People constantly leave their dwellings open on account of the excessive heat. Many sleep at night in the open air, and on the advent of the rainy season, snakes even come to take shelter in human abodes.

We have noticed how the Aryans in their religion looked

to the objects which were worthy of their love and gratitude. The older black race, on the other hand, prayed to the objects which made them tremble with fear.

While the Aryans reverenced the sparkling streams and snow-capped hills, the blacks worshipped the deadly serpents, or *nagas*. At first the custom was so repulsive to the Aryans that one of the worst names they could give to the race they had supplanted was that of snake-worshippers.

Yet such is the influence of familiarity that, after a time, they themselves adopted snake-worship, and, at the present time, the Hindus hold a yearly festival in honour of snakes. In the ceremonies, real reptiles play a prominent part. We shall meet with many places in India ending in *pore*, which means "town": Nagpore, the capital of the Central Provinces, means "Snake-town."

Yet, though the Aryans despised the black race, there grew up some sort of union between the two, and this can be seen in the shades of colour to be found in their descendants of the present day. As we proceed across the northern plain of India from west to east, the colour of the inhabitants is seen to grow gradually darker.

On the west are to be found some inhabitants of pure Aryan descent. On the east are the descendants of the black race. In the intervening district between east and west are the people descended from the union of the two.

But, as a rule, the Aryans wished to keep the black men at arm's length, or, at most, to use them only as slaves. To confine them to the lowest ranks of the social scale, they began to form themselves into three distinct classes, or "castes": the Brahman or priestly caste, the Rajput or soldier caste, and the trading and farming caste.

Besides these three, there was the menial caste, which

included the black race. Any man outside any caste was called a "pariah," a word which really meant a "hill-man," and serves to throw a curious light on what happened to the old inhabitants.

There was no way by which a man might pass from one caste to another. Everyone had to live and die in the caste in which he had been born. It will be easily understood that such a system would divide up the land into groups which would not readily combine against a common foe, and the history of India has shown that it has always been possible for foreigners, like the British, to go and conquer the land by men drawn from its own borders.

Yet we must not dismiss the caste system without a word in its favour. It provided an organization by which the different sections of society each looked after its own members, and no regular Poor Law has ever been found necessary in India to deal with questions of poverty.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Mohammedans.

AGAIN we turn to Arabia, not this time to see the Arabs trading with India, but to see them accepting the teaching of Mohammed, and then setting forth as soldier-missionaries to convert by force the surrounding peoples to their new faith. The hill tribes beyond the North-West frontier of India adopted the Mohammedan creed, and then poured through the Cabul valley to convert, in their turn, the Hindus.

There was, at this time, one hope of escape for the Hindus. Would the Rajput clans, who held the chief

authority in the North-West, be able to roll back the tide of invasion of the hill tribes? They might perhaps have done so, had they been thoroughly united, but, like all clansmen, their loyalty extended no further than to their own immediate chief.

As a result, they gave way before the oncoming tide, and though they were not brought completely into subjection like the remainder of the Hindus, they were only able to retain a semblance of independence by taking refuge in the hills on the fringe of the desert. This will explain the position of Rajputana near the Great Indian Desert and the hills north of the Deccan.

The Indian Desert will also explain the course of the conquerors eastward. Entering India, they reached the Punjab or land of the Five Rivers, but, instead of following the river Indus to its mouth along the dry lands which bounded its lower length, they turned eastwards and reached, at Delhi, the Jumna, a tributary of the Ganges. Here, in after years, their capital was established; and it will be seen that Delhi commands the road from the north-western entrance through the Himalayas, since this road passes north of the Great Indian Desert.

But the Mohammedans did not displace the Hindus, as the Hindus had displaced the earlier inhabitants. The new conquerors formed as it were an armed camp in the midst of the Hindus, on whom they depended for the necessaries of life. Yet what the Hindus had failed to do with their swords, their climate effected in the lapse of time. Through their removal from the bracing air of their own hill country, and their residence in an enervating climate, the Mohammedan hill-men became weakened, and a ready prey for another set of conquerors.

After a possession of about 700 years, the Indian Mussulmans were conquered by fresh bands of hill tribes, who

were really Turks, but who are usually called the Mongols or Moguls. Babar, their leader, has left us his first impressions of the land he conquered. "I had never before seen countries of warm temperature nor the country of Hindustan. Immediately on reaching it, I beheld a new world. The grass was different, the trees different, the wild animals of a different sort, the birds of a different plumage. I was struck with astonishment, and indeed there was room for wonder."

The invasion of these hardy sons of the North to rob their weaker brethren will remind one of the vanquishing of the Saxons by the Danes. Moreover, like the Danes, the new bands of Mohammedans showed they were possessed of considerable artistic taste. Their buildings at Agra and Delhi are among the finest the world has ever produced. At Agra is still to be found a work of art of the widest fame. It is a tomb built by the Emperor Shah Jehan in memory of his wife Mahal, and hence called the Taj Mahal. No words can convey a fitting idea of its costly materials and lovely details, and perhaps no better testimony can be paid to it than the fact that, through the building of this magnificent monument, the artisans of Agra acquired skill which they have retained to the present day. They are still famed for inlaid marble work, gem-setting, and the preparation of mosaics.

Besides being great architects, the Mohammedans were also skilled engineers, and there still remain the wonderful waterworks of Ahmednagar (the fortress of Ahmed). The British are naturally proud of the way their engineers have brought water to thirsty lands in India and Egypt, but there is a doubt if they are much in advance of the Mohammedan engineers, who knew how to catch every spring on the hillside and bring the water in cool underground channels to enormous populations.

Agra is really Akbar-abad, that is, the abode of Akbar, and was named after the great Emperor Akbar, who was the first to recognize clearly that the hope for his Empire lay in a reconciliation between the Hindus and the Mohammedans. He therefore tried to adopt a religion which would satisfy both. But his successors were not all of his mind.

Aurungzeb, whose mother was a Persian lady, returned to the most bitter form of Islam, and insisted upon the recognition of Mohammed as the one true prophet. Aurungzeb tried to stamp out Hinduism, and as a result, he aroused the hatred of the Rajputs and kindled in the peasantry of Southern India a great national revival. These formed themselves into a league or bond, and called themselves the Mahrattas. Choosing for their strongholds the rough and difficult country of the Western Ghats and the Deccan Tableland, they became freebooters under daring captains.

Aurungzeb, who was responsible for their existence, called them "mountain rats"; and at any rate they showed that they were able to bite, and bite to advantage. They defied the Mogul armies, and wasted the country so that at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Mogul Empire had fallen to pieces and the Mahrattas had become the greatest power in the land. The different rulers in various parts of the land began to scramble for the fragments of the Empire, and used their opportunity to become independent princes.

It will be found that a large number of the Indian towns end either in *pur*, which means "city," or in *abad*, which means "abode." Thus, there is Allah-abad, the abode of Allah (God); Murshidabad, in Bengal, the abode of Murshid; Ahmed-abad, the abode of Ahmed; and Secunder-abad, the abode of Alexander.

CHAPTER IX.

The East India Company.

THE Portuguese, by hugging the coast of Africa, had reached the Cape of Good Hope. Following upon this, Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese navigator, rounded the Cape in 1497, and obtained information which enabled him to follow the routes taken by the Arab mariners or Moors, as they were called, and to reach Calicut. As a result of his work, his countrymen were able to trade for a century with India and the Spice Islands.

They fixed their trading stations at Bombay, Goa, and Calicut on the Malabar coast, at Colombo in Ceylon, and at Malacca in the Malay Peninsula. The positions of these Indian centres will guide us to the routes which crossed the land. Those from the stations around the Gulf of Cambay either led northwards to the waters of the Jumna and the important towns of Agra and Delhi, or, following the valleys of the Narbada and Son, led to Benares and Patna and the land of the lower Ganges.

Bombay and Goa were placed near breaks in the Western Ghats, which led respectively to the valleys of the Godavari and Kistna.

Calicut's position was specially significant. The Western Ghats end in the Nilgiris, or Blue Mountains. Then comes a broad gap before another set of hills rise, to end in Cape Comorin. As the strait between Ceylon and the mainland is impeded with low coral reefs and sandbanks, the passage across the country from Calicut to the eastern shore was of exceptional value.

Portugal, in 1580, became united with Spain, and, when in 1588 the Spanish Armada was defeated, there came an opportunity for the English and the Dutch to secure a

share in the East Indian trade, and even to rob the Portuguese of their possessions.

The Dutch, intent chiefly on the spice trade, set up their trading stations in Ceylon and the further East from Batavia, in Java, to China. They gradually got the bulk of this trade into their own hands, and, in 1599, raised the price of pepper in the English market from 3s. to 8s. per pound. The Lord Mayor of London, in alarm, called a meeting of the chief City merchants to consider the situation, and they agreed to send out ships to the East Indies, and ask Queen Elizabeth for a charter. This was the formation, in 1600, of the Honourable East India Company, which flourished for over 250 years. The first English trading station, or "factory," was at Surat, a town which had risen to importance because of the Mohammedan invasion. We have seen how the Gulf of Cambay opens up a route to Delhi; and because of the number of Mussulman pilgrims who made their way to Surat to embark for their holy city of Mecca, Surat became known as the "gate of Mecca."

But the English owned no land at Surat, and it was not until Charles II obtained Bombay as part of the dowry given with his Portuguese wife that the British had a foothold of their own. Bombay, as its name implies, has a good harbour, which is formed by a small number of islands running out from the mainland. It did not, however, become the true threshold to India till the Mahratta power in the hill country to the rear was destroyed.

Natural difficulties, as well as human foes, barred the way to the interior. A glance at the map will show that the coast on which Bombay stands is backed by a range of mountains, from which the land slopes away gradually towards the east. The hills were planned by Nature for

natural castles, and there, when hard pressed, the Mahrattas retired for protection, and thence swooped down to rob the merchants of their goods when escorts were insufficient.

Bombay has taken the place once occupied by Surat, and this is most clearly seen in the action of the Parsees, who are the most prosperous people in India. As their name shows, they belong to Persia, and they left their land to escape the Mohammedan invasion. They first went to Surat, but later they moved to Bombay, a town which also secured the trade of Surat, when the Tapti became unsuitable for modern ocean-going vessels.

CHAPTER X.

The British and the French in the Carnatic.

THE Deccan, or triangular tableland of the peninsular portion of India, is bounded on two of its sides by the Western and the Eastern Ghats. These ranges show great differences, the one from the other. The Western hills rise in lofty peaks almost straight up from the ocean, and form a huge wall which cannot be readily pierced.

The Eastern Ghats are lower, and run at a greater distance from the coast. They are also broken into sections by broad valleys and river gorges.

We have seen how largely the monsoon affects the life of the Indian peoples. The character of the coasts can be traced to the same cause. A strong prevailing wind always helps to decide the course of ocean currents, and on both the coasts of India during the south-west monsoon the currents set northwards. The silt which has been brought down by the rivers is then pushed back again to their mouths, which thus get blocked up.

On the eastern shores, where the wind has been robbed of its moisture, the monsoon blows the sand and loose soil towards the sea, and for some considerable distance the sea is very shallow. This has the effect of causing a constant surf to beat upon the coast. Vessels have to anchor some distance from the shore, and land their passengers and goods by means of surf-boats. There is not a single safe harbour in the south-east of India, nor a river mouth which is navigable by boats of any size.



JOSEPH FRANÇOIS, MARQUIS DUPLEIX.
(*Governor of Pondicherry, born* 1697, *died* 1763.)

Yet on the south-east coast, the English and the French established trading settlements, the English at Fort St. George, which later grew into the city of Madras, and the French at Pondicherry, a little to the south of the English station at Fort St. George.

These settlements on the "Coromandel" coast were valuable as headquarters from which the trade to the interior could be regulated, as depots for goods which could be collected from both sides of the Bay of Bengal, and as stations from which communications with the Spice Islands could be assisted through the Straits of Malacca.

Just as the earlier factories had been placed near the Gulf of Cambay, so as to be within easy reach of Delhi and the rich lands in the basin of the Ganges, so the Dutch stations in Ceylon, and the British and French stations at Madras and Pondicherry, were all intended to assist in the development of the trade with the Farther East.

But the keen rivalry between the British and the French would not allow competition to be confined to matters of trade, and in the Carnatic, or coast lands between the Kistna and Cape Comorin there arose the question of the supremacy of the British or the French. The Carnatic was the most likely place for this question to be raised.

The Mogul Empire was in a decaying state, and its decay was felt, first of all, in its most distant members. Both the British and the French, in order to tap the trade of Bengal, had fixed some trading stations on the Ganges, the French at Chandernagore (the city of sandal wood), and the British at Fort William, so called after William of Orange. But the weakness of the Moguls was not as yet much felt in Bengal, and on the western coasts the power of the Mahrattas was sufficient to keep the European traders under control.

It was on the east that authority was most noticeably drifting away from the Emperor. South of the Narbada, a Viceroy of the Empire, who had been given the title of Nizam, had created for himself an independent state, and had in his turn created governors who owed him allegiance.

On the death of the Nizam, as so often happens in the East, there was a dispute among those who wished to succeed him. The French sided with one of the claimants, so it was the most natural thing for the British to side

with the other ; and the struggle which thus arose between the two European nations went on for eighteen years, with varying success, till, at the end of that time, the French were practically beaten from the field.

Dupleix, who was in charge of the affairs of the French East India Company, saw in the quarrels of the native princes an opportunity for building up a French Empire. Owing to the danger which constantly threatened from the Mahrattas, he obtained permission to fortify Pondicherry, and so strong were the defences he raised that on subsequent occasions the Mohammedan princes of the neighbourhood sent their wives and children to their shelter when the Mahrattas raided the surrounding lands.

Yet Dupleix knew perhaps better than anyone else that the result of the struggle for supremacy rested on the command of the waves, and he therefore did not neglect to fortify Pondicherry against attacks by water. The British cause would have been hopelessly lost had it not been for the genius of Clive, who, against tremendous odds, upheld his country's flag.

In the end, Dupleix was recalled to France, and, whereas the native princes had at first sided with the French, believing them to be the winning side, they veered round to the side of the English. The Nizam also transferred to them his support, ceding at the same time Masulipatam (the city of fishes).

CHAPTER XI.

Bengal (Part I).

THE year 1600 saw the signing of the charter to the East India Company, and for the next 150 years the competition between the French and the British was for the

acquisition of the Indian trade. In 1745 this broadened out into the quarrel for supremacy between the two nations, but in 1763 this had been decided in favour of the British.

The struggle between the British and the French involved another region beside the Carnatic, and this in its turn started the contest for supremacy between the British and the native princes, which was again decided in favour of the British after a struggle of fifty years, but was not fully completed till another fifty had elapsed. The year 1756, which saw the war break out in the Carnatic between the British and the French, saw also a change in the Governorship of Bengal.

The position of the province of Bengal is noteworthy. The whole of the land frontier of India is defended by mountain ranges. As we trace these from west to east, their elevation rises, till we arrive at the highest mountains in the world, Mount Everest, over five miles in height, and Kunchinjunga almost as high. It would look as though Nature, knowing the richness of the land on the east, had taken pains to preserve it in a specially strong casket.

But there is a further defence besides that afforded by the mountains. This is the Terai or great Indian swamp, a wide belt of moist land covered with dense jungle, reeds, and thickets. At certain times in the year, this region is so haunted by fevers that even the wild beasts abandon it. The villagers speak of it with bated breath as *Mar* (death), and the dread which causes mankind to shun it makes it as effective a barrier as the lofty heights of the Himalayas or the parched sands of the Great Indian Desert.

As we shall see later, India is made up of three kinds of provinces, those directly under British control, those

native states which have to submit to a certain amount of British guidance, and, lastly, those which are quite independent. The last are formed by the countries which are separated from the lowlands of India by the Terai.

To return to Bengal. It will be seen that the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers form one large delta, which is pierced by many channels. Nowhere else in India do the rivers afford access inland, but here at the head of the Bay of Bengal are several wide, navigable waterways leading to the interior. In some measure these make up for the lack of harbours elsewhere, for along the whole of the east coast Nature has not provided a single harbour which can be used by large ships.

For a people whose power lay on the sea, the advance into the north of India by way of Bengal and the river Ganges was as easy as the way into the land over the Himalayas was difficult. Before the time of the British, the invaders who had established themselves in the land had approached it from the west, and moved from the Punjab to Bengal. It was for the British to reverse the movement, and this was easy and natural for them because they were a seafaring nation, while the Hindus had always carefully avoided the sea.

In one aspect, however, history repeated itself. A small force was able to overcome an extremely large one. The Mohammedan, Babar, who invaded India with his hill tribes, could only bring 12,000 men against a force which was estimated at 100,000 foot-soldiers and more than 1,000 elephants. The task that faced the British was less difficult, because the Mogul Empire was divided against itself, and it was an easy matter to employ men to fight who thought only of the certainty of reward and the chance of victory, and made no account at all of the justice or injustice of the quarrel in which they were engaged.

Though the best cavalry soldiers were those who hailed from the hill country—the Afghans and the Mahrattas—the British usually relied for their infantry upon the ordinary Hindus, and for one hundred years they were "faithful to their salt," and well repaid their employers by steadfast courage and staunch loyalty.

CHAPTER XII.

Bengal (Part II).

A NEW Governor, or Nawab, succeeded to the Province of Bengal at the time when war was about to break out between the British and the French. This Nawab was Surajah Dowlah. As both the British and the French had trading stations on the Ganges delta, it was to be expected that the war would extend to Bengal. The British had never obtained permission to fortify their settlement at Fort William (Calcutta), though they had raised some walls and dug a trench, known as the Mahratta ditch, when there was danger from the foes of that name.

On the eve of the war with France, the British hoped to raise some stronger fortifications. This the new Nawab absolutely refused to sanction, and he made the action of the British his excuse for attacking Calcutta. Though the garrison held out for five days, the weak state of the defences left no doubt as to the final issue, and on the sixth day the survivors, 146 in number, relying on the promise of Surajah that no harm should befall them, surrendered. In spite of this undertaking, they were thrust into a small dungeon, which has come down in history under the name of the "Black Hole of Calcutta."

Only those who have lived in the burning heat of Bengal can realize what torture this meant. Each long day during the summer months, when towards evening the sun disappears, although the hot winds cease, a stifling heat succeeds which causes even the birds to drop to the ground and gasp for breath with open beaks.



A PUNKAH OR INDIAN FAN.
(*This is kept moving with a string by a native.*)

One hundred and twenty-three of the captives died of heat and exhaustion in their tiny prison during the night.

News of the horror was carried to Madras. Clive hastened to send his troops by sea to the mouth of the Hooghly, in a fleet under the command of Admiral

Watson. Though the number of men against him was enormous, Clive knew that he had less to fear from the enemy's soldiers than from the climate in which he would have to meet them.

He managed to cut his way through the Nawab's forces, and arrived at Calcutta. Then Surajah Dowlah sued for peace, and Clive welcomed his offer, for he wished to hold himself free to make an attack on the French settlement at Chandernagore.

No sooner was peace arranged and the treaty signed, than the Nawab began to waver. He had heard that a great French army was advancing from Hyderabad, for French influence in the Carnatic was still strong. He withdrew his consent to the contemplated attack on Chandernagore, and even wrote to the French general in the Deccan bidding him hasten to his aid. The British determined to go forward with the attack on the French settlement, and Clive, with his European soldiers and sepoys, and Watson, with his fleet, soon made defence impossible, and the fort surrendered.

Now seemed the time to bring Surajah to account. The commander of his forces, Mir Jaffir, was bribed to turn traitor, but at the last minute Omichund, the Hindu banker who had been the agent between Clive and Mir Jaffir, demanded as the price of his secrecy a large share of the expected spoils.

Clive gave him the required promise, though resolving at the same time to disregard it. He made out two agreements, in one of which he forged the signature of Watson because the Admiral had bluntly refused to be a party to any underhand dealing. After the battle had delivered his enemy into his hand, Clive confessed the forgery in the following words: "Omichund, the red paper is a trick, you are to have nothing."

With all his preparations complete, Clive marched on Murshidabad, Surajah's capital. Mir Jaffir, loyal to his disloyalty, deserted his master on the field of Plassey, and Surajah fled, leaving his wealth, baggage, elephants, and artillery behind him.

The merchants and bankers of Murshidabad met Clive and asked him to save the city from plunder. They brought out the stored-up wealth of their province, the richest in India. The royal treasure-house, with its piles of gold and silver, was thrown open to him, and he was presented with an abundance from its immense store. This formed such a small part of the total treasures that later, when he was charged before a parliamentary committee with extortion, he exclaimed with great vehemence, " Mr. Chairman, at this moment I stand astonished at my own moderation."

An estimate of the wealth of the province may be measured by the fines which he imposed. For the expenses of the campaign he claimed 10,000,000 rupees ; for those who had suffered when Calcutta was captured, 8,000,000 rupees ; for the army, 2,500,000 rupees ; for the navy, 2,500,000 rupees. For himself he required 480,000 rupees by virtue of his office, and 1,600,000 as a private gift. At the time when these awards were required the value of the rupee was two shillings and sixpence. These figures will serve to show the value of the land which had fallen under the power of the British.

Yet, though we cannot fail to feel admiration for Clive's wonderful genius and skill, we cannot also restrain our feelings of sorrow that his fame is tarnished by acts of deceit and extortion, and this must be acknowledged, even though he was dealing with Easterns who were accustomed to employ the same objectionable methods.

CHAPTER XIII.

Bengal (Part III).

BENGAL owes everything to its rivers, which lead like main arteries to the very heart of India. Westward from Bengal the land lies open to the great plain called, till 1902, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Further northwards it extends into the Punjab, and right onwards to the foot of the Himalayas. As highways, the rivers enable traders to carry their wares through an immense extent of country.

But the rivers are also constantly adding to the country itself. As they creep towards the delta they become more and more sluggish, and their branchings more and more numerous. The last scene of all is a vast area of swamp and forest where the waters merge imperceptibly into the sea. The remaining silt from the streams is then deposited. Year in and year out, this process of land formation continues.

At times of flood, the fresh soil is carried over the banks of the rivers to the fields of the *ryot* or farmer, so that he never has any concern about the exhaustion of his soil. Within 400 miles of the mouth of the river it is said that not a stone can be found.

In times of flood, the lowest part of the delta looks like an immense sea. The rice fields are covered with just enough water to allow the ears of grain to peep out above the surface, and the peasants have to go to their daily work on rafts or in canoes.

Just as in Egypt the science of geometry or land measurement was built up to enable the people to fix the landmarks which were annually washed out by the floods of the Nile, so in Bengal a particular branch of law has



TYPICAL RICE FIELDS.

grown up to decide the rights of ownership on the banks of the Ganges.

The wonderful fertility of the soil is shown by the fact that every vegetable product which feeds and clothes a people and enables it to trade with other nations abounds. Bengal is the most densely peopled of all the Indian provinces, and it contributes over one-third of the total income.

Thus, Britannia by good fortune had gained a province which by its own resources would secure the conquest of the rest of the land, and so long as the British hold the port of Calcutta and the province of Bengal, they will always be able to recover their power in India, even though for a time they might lose their hold of the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab.

In other words, what has already been found possible will be possible again. Had the British been required to meet the fierce Mahrattas as their first enemies, it is possible that the great Indian Empire would never have fallen to their share. But Bengal was the farthest removed from these foes, and the British were able to consolidate their forces before they were required to enter upon the hardest struggle of all.

Owing to the climate, which is like a vapour bath, the inhabitants of Bengal are less warlike than elsewhere, and the British conquest was, as we have seen, an easy matter. To the British, whose power lay on the sea, its defence was as simple as its conquest, and the conquerors chose Calcutta for the capital of the Empire which was built up from Bengal.

Calcutta lay on the same western branch of the Ganges as the native capital, Murshidabad. To Clive, Murshidabad seemed as large, populous, and wealthy as London, and the great landowners of the surrounding district

appeared even wealthier than those of the Thames valley. But the name of Calcutta reminds us that its site was once dedicated to the worship of the goddess Kali, whose altars were stained with the blood of human sacrifices.

The Aryans, on their entrance into India, reverenced the kindly powers of Nature—fire, the streams, and the storms that brought the refreshing rains; but, as the years rolled on, they embodied in their worship some of the offensive scenes which passed daily before their eyes. The marshy tracts of the Ganges delta are known as the Sunderbunds, the resort of the Bengal tiger and other ferocious animals, while the waters are infested with destructive crocodiles; and Calcutta, which was near the scenes of the most revolting animal carnage, was devoted to the worship of Kali.

In Europe, the forces of Nature came somewhat easily under man's control, but in India, where the forces are so vast and appalling, they seem entirely beyond man's power, and they produce a religious feeling of dependence and awe which has entered completely into the very life and actions of the people.

CHAPTER XIV.

The Heart of India.

If we can read aright the map of India, it will tell us a great deal about the plain which extends over the northern area. The key is to be found in the rivers and their branchings. In Bengal, as we have seen, the whole land is a network of innumerable creeks and streams.

But on the west, in the Punjab, the situation is entirely reversed. While the Ganges flows in a parallel direction

to the Himalayas, gathering up the waters of tributary after tributary as it proceeds, the Indus flowing away from the mountains, has nothing on which to depend for an addition to its waters. Thus, while the Ganges is swollen to thirteen times its size during the hot weather, the Indus diminishes as it advances.

The Indus valley is almost rainless, and is a dull, treeless region, while the lower reaches of the Ganges are so luxuriant that vegetation cannot be repressed. On the branches of the Ganges every peasant has his own boat and every labourer his canoe, but in the Punjab, the anxious husbandman is content if only the rain-clouds are sufficient to save his crops from the scorching heat.

While every inch of Bengal is densely packed with vegetation, not even the Punjab *doabs*, or regions between two rivers, are wholly fertile—the good land lying along the banks of either river and enclosing between them a waste. The Punjab plains, for most of the year, are brown and dry, scorched in summer by fiery winds whose breath is like the blast of a furnace. In Bengal, moisture goes hand in hand with heat and makes the climate one of the dampest on earth. Thus, while wheat is the chief crop in the Punjab, the landscape of Bengal is dotted with steaming rice-fields, bamboo clumps, and palm groves.

On the banks of the Indus there is not a single large city. On the Ganges they occur in clusters.

Just as the colour of the inhabitants becomes darker as we proceed from west to east, the middle district being in this respect intermediate between Bengal on the one side and the Indus valley on the other, so there are corresponding grades between these districts in their water supplies, their climate, and their productions.



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

A SUGAR MILL IN THE PUNJAB.

The district which stands between the two extremes was till lately known as the North-Western Provinces, and this name takes us back to the time when the British, with their base in Bengal, had extended their possessions no further than this "middle" region. It is the country which was known to the later Aryans as the "middle land," and became the heart of the Hindu civilization and the core of the Mogul Empire. Its climate is considered the healthiest in the Ganges valley. The official name of this district is now the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the provinces of Agra, Oudh, and Bihar were noted for the wealth of their productions, and the district around Delhi had always been extremely populous. Large tracts of forest and grass jungle ran along the foot of the Himalayas, and these were retained by the great Mogul Emperors for their hunting preserves; but the wide plain of the Ganges was carefully tilled by the industrious peasants.

Every spot near the river brings us close to the famous cities and holy places of Hinduism, and, as the hopes of the Jews were fixed on Jerusalem, and the faces of the Mohammedans turned to Mecca, so the Hindus directed their steps towards the sacred waters of the Ganges at Allahabad, Benares, or Patna.

Though the inhabitants of Oudh are for the most part Hindus, those of the neighbouring province of Rohilcund are Mohammedans. In fact, the name of their country was derived from their name, *Rohillas*, because they were "mountain men" hailing from Afghanistan; and the jealousies and religious bitterness between the Hindus and the Mohammedans opened the way for the British still further to extend their influence, as we shall see in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XV.

Native States (Part I).

On the break-up of the Mohammedan dominion, there were two powers that might have risen to take its place. One was the British, the other the Mahratta. The former had trading stations on the east and west at Madras and Bombay respectively, and, moreover, had secured the chief influence in Bengal. The Mahrattas had established themselves along the line of the Western Ghats, and northwards as far as the Jumna. They represented a revival of the old Hindu supremacy, and as such were especially hostile to the remnants of the Mogul Empire.

Among these remnants, two states in the Deccan call for particular notice. One was Hyderabad, with boundaries roughly marked out by the Godavari and the Kistna and their tributaries. The valley of the Kistna has been from early ages noted for its diamond fields, from which was derived the famous gem known as the Koh-i-nur, or "Mountain of Light," now forming part of the British Crown jewels.

The other state was Mysore, and it will no doubt strike you as strange that, while Hyderabad was the early home of the diamond, Mysore has been from ancient times noted for gold. Neither Mysore nor Hyderabad could hold its own against the roving armies of the Mahrattas, whose usual plan of campaign was to overrun a country with troops of light horsemen, harass and weaken its defenders, and then levy heavy contributions.

Their stations in the rugged hill country favoured this species of irregular warfare, and, though their leaders were rough and ignorant, their resources were ably managed

by their Brahman ministers, called *Peshwas*, who had their headquarters at Poona.

Owning allegiance to the Peshwas at Poona were the captains at Gwalior, Indore, Baroda, and Nagpore, whose positions should be carefully noted. In the north of India the chief Mohammedan prince was the Vizier of Oudh, and north of Oudh, in the angle between the line of the Himalayas and the Upper Ganges, lay the country of the Rohillas, a people descended from the Afghan hill-men, and who, on account of their race and religion, were special objects of hate to the Mahrattas.

After the British occupation of Bengal, Clive had an opportunity of annexing Oudh, and of marching straight onwards to Delhi. But he decided it was far better to maintain the province under its native rulers, so that it might form a friendly or buffer state between Bengal on the east and the Mahrattas on the west. This arrangement seemed likely to secure for the British the peaceful possession of Bengal, for it provided a noteworthy balance of Hindu and Mohammedan influences on the side where dangers were greatest.

The Mohammedan tribes of Afghanistan were now combining to form a state under their Amirs, but they were shut off from the Punjab by the Hindus known as the Sikhs, who were as intensely hostile to Islam as capable of resisting them. Also, the province of Oudh was a set off against the Mahrattas.

We now shift the scene to the peninsular portion of India. Here the British had to come into close touch with rulers who were more or less opposed to them. On the east, the British territory ran along the sea-coast, but the Nawab of the Carnatic was not well disposed and needed watching. The Nizam of Hyderabad, though he had entered into an alliance with the East India Company,



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

A GROUP OF SIKH PRIESTS.

was constantly wavering, according as he was harassed by the ruler of Mysore or by the Mahrattas. His policy was to keep friendly with both sides, so that he might stand well with whichever side should win.

The ruler of Mysore harboured bitter feelings against the British, but had resolved to conceal his real attitude till a convenient opportunity allowed him to strike with advantage.

CHAPTER XVI.

Native States (Part II).

SUCH was the condition of affairs towards the end of the eighteenth century, when the British possessions in America and India were involved in great peril. The colonists of the New England States in America had taken up arms against the Mother Country, and the French, who had been deprived of their possessions in both hemispheres, were anxious to regain some of the ground they had lost.

The French had always shown considerable skill in gaining the friendship of the natives, and they sent agents to India to arrange alliances with the Mahrattas and with Hyder Ali, the ruler of Mysore. The British were naturally alarmed, for the Mahrattas, enthroned in the Western Ghats, overshadowed the British station of Bombay, and the state of Mysore lay near the land route which ran between the French settlement of Mahé on the west and Pondicherry on the east.

Hyder Ali was just the man to take full advantage of the embarrassments in which the British were entangled. The ruler of a beautiful country, rich in gold and coffee, besides the ordinary products of agriculture, he was

ever on the look-out to increase his own possessions at the expense of his neighbours.

From his land of Mysore, the centre from which flowed the rivers of southernmost India, he had pushed his territories westwards to the Malabar coast, and, when the British proceeded to take the French station of Mahé lest it should become a link in the communication between the French and the state of Mysore, Hyder Ali claimed that the place was under his protection and should be let alone.

The British, however, took no notice of his protests, and Hyder Ali, making common cause with the Mahrattas, and drawing the Nizam of Hyderabad into the alliance against the British, descended like a thunderstorm upon the Carnatic. Warren Hastings, who was now in charge of the East India Company's affairs, sent a force which defeated Hyder Ali's army at Porto Novo, near Madras.

During the war, Hyder Ali died, and was succeeded by his son, Tippu, the "Tiger of Mysore," who sent to the French governor of Mauritius, the "Isle of France," asking for his aid in driving the British out of India. Fortunately at this time there arrived in India a Governor-General who was fully alive to the necessity of striking quickly and striking hard. This man was Lord Mornington, whose brother was Colonel Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the Duke of Wellington.

To add to the difficulties of the situation, Napoleon had determined to make a descent upon India by way of Egypt. His schemes, however, were completely shattered by Nelson at the Battle of the Nile, and Lord Mornington now determined to make it impossible for the native states to look to France for assistance in the future. His brother, Colonel Arthur Wellesley, forced

Tippu to retire to his capital of Seringapatam, situated on an island of the Cauvery, and fortified by Tippu himself.

After a fierce fight, the town was taken. Seringapatam and the passes leading down to the plains, as well as to the western sea-coast, were seized by the British. The Nawab of the Carnatic, who had been secretly aiding Tippu, was removed, and his lands placed under British control. But again, as in the case of Oudh, the East India Company did not wish to acquire Mysore, but preferred to let it remain in native hands as a bulwark against the Mahrattas.

It was a Hindu state, though it had recently been under Mohammedan rulers, and the British restored the throne to the descendant of the last Hindu prince. This was done in deference to the principle that the permanence of the British Empire is to be secured, not by its extension, but by the character of its rule, by practically demonstrating that "Britons are willing to respect the rights of others as they are capable of maintaining their own."

CHAPTER XVII.

The Mahrattas brought under British Control.

THE final defeat of the "Tiger of Mysore" gave the British complete control over the southern portion of the peninsula, and General Wellesley, in giving up the command of the Carnatic army, recommended as strongly as possible that for future needs draught bullocks of Mysore should be reared and kept for the British army.

By the aid of these animals he had been able to drag his artillery and other baggage through the difficult country of the Deccan and Central India; and he

attributed much of his success to the speed and endurance of these patient beasts.

To us, accustomed to railway facilities over a fairly level country, Wellesley's advice would, at first sight, seem trifling, but we can, through it, gain a good picture of the protracted stages by which the conquest of India was effected.



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

A HINDU TEMPLE.

So much for the foresight of the soldier, now for the foresight of the statesman. General Wellesley's brother, now Marquess of Wellesley, saw that, as Napoleon Bonaparte was overthrowing governments on every hand, it was necessary for the East India Company to secure a firmer hold on the native princes of India.

After Mysore had been dealt with, he turned his attention to Oudh, where the ruler, or Vizier, had allowed

his land to fall into complete confusion, and was inflicting great suffering on his subjects. The disorders of his land were a danger to his neighbours, and the Governor-General required him to disband his irregular troops, and cede all his frontier provinces to the Company.

In this way he was isolated from the other native princes, for after the re-adjustment, his land was surrounded by British territory, except in the north, where it bordered on the mountain state of Nepal.

But this was not the only result of the change. Oudh was no longer a buffer between the British and the Mahrattas, and the time now came when the armies of the two were to try their strength against each other.

At the break-up of the Mogul Empire, the Mahratta power was the one which might have re-constructed a native empire in India. That it failed to do so was largely because the Mahrattas allowed the British to get firmly established before they met them in the field.

We have noticed how the nursery of the Mahrattas was in the hill country of Western and Central India; and in the days of Wellesley there were five leading chiefs or princes wielding enormous power. They bore titles or family names which are somewhat confusing, but it is well to note the position of their capitals, for they throw considerable light on the build of India.

Let us take Bombay as our centre or starting-point, and trace the five chief Mahratta stations of Baroda, Poona, Nagpore, Indore, and Gwalior.

The seaward face of the Western Ghats is composed of steep-sided cliffs, and, were it not for the island of Salsette, there would be no harbour at Bombay. But there would

have been a *town*, because it is a natural centre which leads in three different directions.

One is through the Bor-ghat, which opens towards the south-east, leading past Poona towards Madras. One is northwards along the coast plain to Surat and Baroda. The third is through the Thal-ghat towards the north-east, and leads past Nagpore. There is no coast road southwards from Bombay.

A glance at the map will show that Baroda, Poona, and Nagpore hold strong positions on these roads leading out of Bombay, and their importance is not merely a thing of the past. Poona continues to be the military capital of the Deccan. Baroda is to-day a city both of temples and bankers. Nagpore is, as we have seen, the capital of the Central Provinces, and still maintains its Hindu temples, which are built in the best style of Mahratta architecture.

But Baroda and Nagpore are the starting-points for other roads. It will be seen that the route from Baroda can diverge either to Delhi, passing through Agra, or to Allahabad. The former will pass through Gwalior, a strong fortress which crowns a rock rising sheer out of the plain to a height of 342 feet, and Indore, on an elevated and healthy site, 1,786 feet in height.

Nagpore is the junction of roads which lead either to Calcutta or to Allahabad.

After many severe battles, in which the British had difficulty in holding their own, the Mahrattas abandoned the tactics of European warfare, and fell back on their old methods of rapid cavalry movements, and harassing attacks. The British found that the only way to combat them was to form flying columns, which pursued the enemy so persistently that their chiefs at last agreed to make peace.

The British now took the opportunity of severing and isolating the territories of the various chiefs, so as to make it difficult for them to combine for mischief in the future ; and, as a result, the pieces of the former Mahratta states can now be found dotted over the west of India like plums in a cake.

Moreover, the British took entire possession of the sea-coast. Thus their possessions were extended, and the only provinces completely outside their influence were the Punjab, where the Sikhs were rapidly consolidating their power ; the state along the lower Indus ; and the mountain state of Nepal.

CHAPTER XVIII.

The Pindaris and the Gurkhas.

WELLESLEY'S work in India was variously viewed in England, and, while congratulations were showered upon him from many quarters, condemnation arose in many others. Yet the Governor-General, the Napoleon of India, stood unmoved. Sufficient was it for him to have extended the rule of Britain over vast areas where for many years lawlessness had reigned supreme. The London merchants of the Company, however, were seized with " the craven fear of being great," and recalled the Governor-General, whose schemes of expansion they dreaded.

Strange to relate, the man who had in Parliament most repeatedly denounced Wellesley's policy was called upon to succeed him as the ruler of India. He soon found that there were factors in the situation which he had previously failed to grasp. If he had adhered to his former ideas, and allowed native India to shift for itself,

disorder would have extended everywhere. He thus decided that it was impossible to stand idly by while villages were raided and unoffending peasants were robbed.

Chief among the offenders were the mounted robbers, known as the Pindaris, who were encouraged in their raids by the Mahrattas. The Pindaris fixed their head-quarters in the rocky gorges of the Narbada, and made their excursions northwards into the villages of Rajputana ; eastwards to the sacred lands of Jagannath ; and southwards to the deep valley of the Kistna in the Nizam's dominions. They devastated the fields and burned what they could not carry away. Often the inhabitants would retire into their leaf-thatched huts, and, setting them on fire, perish in the flames rather than submit their wives and children to the fiendish atrocities of their foes.

In addition to the attacks of the Pindaris, the Company's villages in Bengal were exposed to the attacks of the Gurkhas, a Hindu race which, years before, had fled from the Mohammedans, to take refuge in the land at the base of the Himalayas. This land is known as Nepal, and comprises the hill country to the north of Oudh. Its original inhabitants appear to have been of Chinese descent, and they were parted from the lowland plain by the fever-haunted, trackless forest-swamp known as the Terai. Yet the river valleys of the Gogra, the Gonduk, and the Kosi gave the Gurkhas access to Bengal ; and they made bold to invade British territory and even to demand tribute.

When called upon to keep within their own domains, the Gurkhas taunted the British with their failure to take the Rajputana fortress of Bhartpur. " If the soldiers of the Company had failed to take this fortress of

the lowlands, how could they hope to storm the mountain fastnesses which had been raised by the hand of God ? "

In military matters these Gurkhas have always been the most apt pupils of European methods of warfare. Though small of stature, they were noted for their bravery and hardiness, and thus needed to be treated with respect. The fighting with the Mahrattas had been a revelation to the British generals, and against the Gurkha force of 12,000 fighting men was despatched a British force of 24,000 men, with sixty-four guns. This was the first of the expeditions against the hill tribes that have at varying intervals of time been continued ever since.

After a stubborn resistance, the Gurkhas were forced to submit, and as the price of peace they were compelled to cede to the British a long strip of the lower Himalayas from their present western frontier to the banks of the Sutlej. The limits of their territory were marked out by stone pillars, so that all causes for quarrel over the boundary line in the future might be removed.

Since the treaty, the brave little Gurkhas have come forward in considerable numbers to enlist under the British flag, and they now form some of the finest fighting material of the native army.

Included in the territory ceded by the Gurkhas was the station of Simla, situated on a ridge of the Himalayas, and this became the seat of the Indian Government during the hot season.

At the present day there are two native States which are entirely independent of the British authority in India. They are Nepal and Bhutan, and it is perhaps not too much to claim that their independence is due to the presence of the swampy Terai.

CHAPTER XIX.

Links in the Chain of Empire.

WHAT is called the "law of self-preservation" is one of the strongest impulses possessed by living creatures. Whenever their existence is threatened, then their utmost efforts are called forth to combat the danger. What is true of the individual is also true of the nation, and, during the wars with Napoleon, Britain had to fight, not merely for her independence, but for her very existence. Her case was different from that of her continental neighbours, for Britain's life was largely wrapped up in her colonies and possessions over the sea.

When Napoleon, therefore, had in view the conquest of India, the British strained every nerve to strengthen their hold on this richest of all prizes. We have already noticed the effect of Napoleon's schemes on Wellesley, and how he strove to make the various native states subject to the British power. But the effect of Napoleon's ambitions in the East was not confined within the borders of India. It was vital to British interests that their lines of communication with the colonies should be made doubly safe. It was not sufficient to have ships on the sea that could be relied upon to beat the French; it was necessary also to have places of call on the routes to and from the British possessions.

Napoleon realized the same necessity for his own schemes, and made careful plans for the acquisition of Malta. The position of this island in the middle of the Mediterranean Sea makes it a valuable possession for those who wish to trade with the East by way of the Red Sea. But even more important than its position is its capacity for defence.

Its history dates back to the time of the Phoenician

traders, who founded there a settlement between 1400 and 1500 B.C. In fact, the Maltese are supposed to be the descendants of these early Phoenicians. For over 250 years it was occupied by the Knights of St. John, a military order which you will remember had been formed at the time of the Crusades, and the military strength of the island had been tested later when the Knights of St. John withstood the determined attacks of the Turks for four months, and at last forced them to retire with the loss of three-fourths of their number. The victory had wider issues than the mere possession of the island, and the gallant defenders gained the applause and thanks of the whole Christian world.

What was impossible when force was used was practicable when consent had been gained, and Napoleon, on his way to the conquest of Egypt, arranged for the Grand Master of the Order to hand over the island without opposition.

But, just as Napoleon's history is a continuous account of how he overreached himself, so in his possession of the island of Malta he was not content to "let well alone." He left 3,000 men to garrison the forts, but he also left instructions that the general should collect all the treasures on which he could lay hands. The robbery of their churches aroused the hostility of the Maltese as perhaps nothing else could have done, and so they gave a warm welcome to the British fleet which came to turn out the French. Even with Maltese sympathy and support, the siege lasted two years. In 1800 the island surrendered, and, by the Treaty of Paris fourteen years later, the other Powers of Europe agreed to its retention by the British.

From Malta we turn to Mauritius, which was called by Victor Hugo, the celebrated French writer, "the fairer

Malta of the Tropic Sea." Mauritius, though discovered by a Dutch admiral and named in honour of his prince, Maurice of Nassau, was in the possession of the French for a hundred years. Its importance is shown by the fact that at one time it formed the capital of the French possessions in the East Indies.

During this period it was made into a first-rate naval station, and from it ships were fitted out to prey on the commerce of the British in the Indian Ocean. Mauritius became such a thorn in the side of the English East India Company that Wellesley, time after time, pressed the Directors to undertake its capture. The wars with Napoleon afforded Britain her opportunity to make an attack, and in 1810 it surrendered to the British forces, though by that time Wellesley had been recalled from his post as Governor-General of India.

The soil of Malta is very fertile, and grows fruits and flowers in abundance. Yet it suffers from a lack of water, and has no woods or forests. Mauritius also has a rich soil, but, in addition, it has numerous streams flowing in beautiful, forest-covered ravines. These forests are valuable for preserving the water supply, for trees with their branches and roots are one of Nature's ways of retaining and distributing water.

The French have left their mark on Mauritius in the language of the people and in many of the names of places. The island is often called the "Isle of France." Its capital is Port Louis. Its highest mountain is named "Pouce," that is, *thumb*, because the summit is shaped like a thumb turned upwards.

When France became a Republic at the time of its Revolution, it was but natural that it should become allied with the Dutch Republic. Napoleon valued the alliance chiefly because of the additional naval power which he could

then direct against Britain. The British welcomed the opportunity of gaining various stations on the various sea-routes, for to the Dutch belonged the Cape of Good Hope, the half-way house on the sea-route to India and to Ceylon, the most important station on the route to the Far East.

Later, we shall speak of the way in which the Cape of Good Hope came into the hands of the British. We come now to consider Ceylon, the "Pearl of the Indian Seas."

CHAPTER XX.

Ceylon (Part I).

We again turn our attention to Nepal about 550 years before Christ, this time to look at it as the native land of Gautama, who afterwards gained the title of Buddha, "the enlightened," and made his influence felt over millions of his fellow-men. Gautama was first brought under the teaching and discipline of the Brahman sages, but these did not satisfy his search for truth, and, leaving his teachers, he betook himself to a life of meditation in the jungles of his native land.

Here he became convinced of three great principles which should guide the life of the individual: self-control, kindness to animals (including respect for their lives), and consideration for other men. His ideas on self-control led to the establishment of numerous orders of monks and nuns, and, as we shall see later, in the case of Burmah, these have continued up to the present day.

Buddhism had a great influence in India for 800 years, and then its place was taken by Hinduism. But though it has disappeared from India as a religion, it has left its mark in the mildness and gentleness of the present-day Hindu. Moreover, it still thrives in the surrounding



A CEYLON TEA GARDEN.

lands, and it is estimated there are still 350,000,000 who are devoted to Buddha's teachings.

Asoka, during his reign over India, gave all his energies to the spreading of Buddha's faith. He sent a mission to Ceylon, and two old carvings still exist which show Asoka's emblem, the peacock, side by side with the lion, the emblem of the royal family of the island. It is interesting to note that Ceylon, which is more properly Simhala, is the "lion island." It had been peopled by the Aryans, who, perhaps, instead of making their way overland along the Deccan, sailed in their boats from the Gulf of Cambay.

The most remarkable mountain in Ceylon is associated with the name of Buddha. To the Singhalese it is "the Holy Footprint," and for 1,500 years Buddhists have flocked to the topmost crag, because they think that Gautama Buddha left his footprint there over 2,400 years ago. The Mohammedans connect it with the name of Adam, and say that, when banished from Paradise, Adam was allowed to dwell in this second Eden. Though Sinbad the sailor, in the *Arabian Nights*, tells of his visit to the mountain, the Mohammedans who found their way into India over the land from the north-west never succeeded in reaching Ceylon.

The harbour of Galle, at the south-west corner of the island, is perhaps one of the most ancient of ports that ever engaged in foreign trade. There is reason to think it may have been the Tarshish whence Solomon derived his gold and silver, his ivory, his apes and his peacocks. In modern times Galle was the port of call for the Peninsular and Oriental steamers, till the Colombo breakwater was completed.

The Portuguese, who were the first Europeans to reach Ceylon, established their headquarters at Colombo

because cinnamon was to be obtained in the neighbourhood. They held the island for 150 years, and then the Dutch seized it. In their turn, they held it for nearly 150 years till the British drove them out.

The Portuguese have left the deepest mark on the land. Though they wished to trade in spices, they wished also to spread their own religion. In fact, their affection for their faith often triumphed over their desire for trade. On one occasion a sacred Buddhist relic came into their possession. The Singhalese offered large sums of money for its return, but the Portuguese preferred to destroy it for conscience' sake. The Dutch, on the other hand, rarely rose superior to mere material gains, and this is the reason that, though they tried to sweep away all traces of the Portuguese, their own occupation has left the least permanent impress.

Ceylon, from its richness and beauty, is often called the "Pearl of the Indian Seas," and the Hindu poets, perhaps referring to its wealth of gems—the sapphire, the cat's eye, and the moonstone—spoke of it as the "pendant jewel of India," but the sordid mind of the Dutchman compared it to a ham.

When the Dutch were allied with the French, in the time of Napoleon, the British readily seized their opportunity of taking possession of Ceylon. Its importance can be read from the map. Not only is it close to India, but it is right in the track of ships bound for the Far East. At the present time, it is a sort of marine Crewe Junction, from which traffic branches in different directions.

A few years after the British gained Ceylon, they took also the island of Singapore, and we may associate the two names because both are derived from *Singh*, meaning "lion," possibly because they both belonged to the same royal family.

CHAPTER XXI.

Ceylon (Part II).

At the time when Ceylon fell into the hands of the British, the affairs of India were under the control of the East India Company, so that the island was not brought under the same management, but became a Crown Colony. Yet for many reasons Ceylon should not be dissociated from India. It has much in common with Southern India. It has its mountain walls, which have a striking influence on the rainfall. On the west are to be found places where everything is green and leafy, where as much as 10 inches of rain will fall in a single night, where, to use the language of the watering-can, the water pours down "with the rose off." On the eastern side of the hills are dry districts, with bare, scorching rocks and dry, thorny scrub.

The wet side will remind us of Assam, and it resembles Assam also in its tea plantations. Where once stood deep, shady forests, with large trees entwined with creeping plants, there now grow trim tea bushes, which are trained along the steep slopes, amid dashing torrents and huge blocks of stone.

On the eastern side are good-sized rivers which dry up during part of the year, leaving only their beds of sand. The Singhalese have shown themselves very skilful in the cultivation of their fields. Rice must be kept in water while it is sprouting, and therefore it is usually grown in fields around river mouths, where the water can be made to flow over the land. But the inhabitants of Ceylon have discovered a way of cultivating rice on steep mountain faces by means of terraces. At the proper time a rill of water is set going at the top, and this trickles down from plot to plot until the whole is watered.

The native way of describing time, distance, and area is interesting, as illustrating their life in the country. Distances are described through sounds. Thus, a man will speak of something as being "within a talk" or "within a loud talk," or "within a hoo-call." For giving an idea of times he will either use his arms to show the position of the sun, saying, "The sun was so high before or after sun-turn," or he may describe it through the habits of birds and insects. Thus, he will say, "It was about the time when the bees play" (4 p.m.), or "the time when the parrots fly home to roost" (5.30 p.m.). Areas are spoken of by the amount of seed required to sow them. In England, nowadays, more people are to be found in the town than in the country. In India and Ceylon the cases are reversed.

We have already seen that in their government and size India and Ceylon are quite unlike. There are other striking differences between them. The many varieties of people in India may be estimated from the fact that about eighty different languages are spoken. On the other hand, Ceylon has only two. The Mohammedan invasion of India, which gave it a population of Mohammedans greater than that to be found in any other country or empire, did not extend to Ceylon. Moreover, the latter does not contain any warlike races like those of the Gurkhas and Sikhs, who, after being such troublesome opponents of the British, have now become such loyal supporters.

Another point in which Ceylon and India differ arises from the former's position nearer the Equator. Owing to its hills and to its situation in the sea, Ceylon does not suffer from excessive heat, like the Indian plains, but, on the other hand, it has no cold seas and no winter. The native languages have no words for ice and snow.

To an Englishman who looks for changing seasons and variable days and nights, the conditions found in Ceylon are most monotonous. The days and nights are nearly equal in length all the year round. The temperature is uniformly hot, and the trees are always in leaf. How different from the changing seasons of Britain, where the budding of spring leads on to the glory of summer, where the fall of the leaf gives reminders of the approach of winter, the time of the earth's repose, till spring comes to waken all things to life again!

CHAPTER XXII.

Burmah (Part I).

THERE is a certain fitness in proceeding from Ceylon to Burmah, from one home of Buddhism to another, but our real reason for considering Burmah at this stage is that it was on the side of Burmah that the next portion of territory was added to the British Empire in India. About the time that Clive was conquering Bengal, a military leader was establishing his power at Ava, in the plain where the river Irrawaddy receives the waters of its principal tributaries. This was the rise of the kingdom of Burmah.

From Ava it extended southwards towards Pegu, where the city of Rangoon was founded on the delta of the Irrawaddy. Included in the kingdom of Burmah was not only the country covered by the extensions of the vast Himalaya range, but also the sea-coast of the eastern shores of the Bay of Bengal. The land was a most desirable one. It contained the estuaries of the Irrawaddy, Saluen and Sitang rivers, which were in themselves good natural harbours of great commercial value.

The Irrawaddy, fed by the snows of the mountains,

flows 1,000 miles through the heart of the land from end to end, and it is said to be the largest body of melted snow



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

THE PALACE AT MANDALAY.

in the world. In early summer it overflows its banks, and thus floods the land for miles. The surrounding soil is so rich that any plants which will grow in the tropics

can be cultivated with profit. The plains yield heavy crops of rice; and teak, which is one of the most valuable woods on account of its hardness, abounds in the forests. In addition, there is great mineral wealth in the ruby mines which have been famous for ages, and in the supplies of petroleum which are yearly becoming greater.

In addition to their territories around the mouths of the rivers, the Burmese held the land around the upper waters of the great navigable river, the Brahmaputra, and they considered they were entitled to expand their land on the side of Assam, where they had to cross the hills that fenced them off from India. This, however, meant encroachment on the rights of the East India Company, and the merchants at once remonstrated with the King of Ava.

The remonstrance was treated as an insult; and, with ignorance as great as his indignation, the King ordered an officer to proceed to Calcutta, arrest the Governor-General, and lead him in golden fetters back to Ava for execution. His simplicity did not save him. War was declared (1824). Owing to the nature of its surface, an overland expedition into Burmah was a difficult matter. The Bengal sepoys, however, objected to travel oversea, because the rules of their caste forbade them to do so. They, therefore, had to be sent up the Brahmaputra to Assam. The sepoys of Madras, fortunately, were not so sensitive, and they went by water to Rangoon.

Further difficulties were met with in the unusual method of fighting which the Burmese adopted. They avoided meeting the British troops in the open, but contested their march step by step through the fever-stricken jungle. Here they would raise stockades of interlaced trees and bamboos 20 feet high, and in this way they were able to

continue the fight for two years. The fighting during this time cost the British 20,000 men and £14,000,000. At last the King of Ava was forced to sue for peace, and he agreed among other things to give up his claim to Assam, to cede Arakan and Tenasserim, and to pay a fine of £1,000,000.

The new possession in Assam proved to be a most valuable acquisition. The tea-plant was discovered in the valley of the Brahmaputra, and gave an opportunity of building up one of the most important of Indian industries.

The devotion of the Burmese to Buddhism can be read at every step in their land. The Buddhist priests live together in monasteries, and, in accordance with the teaching of the founder of their religion, they beg their bread from day to day. With eyes fixed upon the ground, they make a house-to-house visitation, in order to receive gifts of rice, curry, fruit, or vegetables. Their land also is covered with pagodas or sacred towers, in the shape of pyramids, which have been raised by the pious.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Burmah (Part II).

LIKE their fellow Buddhists, the Chinese, the people of Burmah were remarkably ignorant of the doings of other nations. The lessons which they should have learned during the war of 1826 were entirely lost upon them. They should have recognized at that time that the same power which could establish itself on the Ganges estuary, and worm its way into the interior, could with infinitely less difficulty take possession of the delta of the Irrawaddy, and penetrate into the heart of their country. But the losses and defeats of the first Burmese War had been

forgotten in twenty years, and it was necessary in 1853 to despatch another expedition to Rangoon, this time to annex Pegu and Lower Burmah.

This loss was a severe blow to the power of the King of Ava. It meant that he could only look for resources inland, and he moved his capital from Ava to Mandalay. He was now completely shut out from the sea through the loss of his coast-lands, and of the lands around the mouths of the Irrawaddy, while the harbours of Rangoon and Bassein were in the hands of his foes. Moreover, the loss of the rice lands of the deltas made him depend on his enemies for the supply of food.

The loss to Burmah was greatly to the advantage of the lands in question. Previous to its occupation by the British, Lower Burmah had been long unsettled and its riches undeveloped, but with its peace came also its prosperity. Rangoon became a thriving port, and now ranks as the third in the Indian Empire.

Just as the possession of Fort William had led to the acquisition of Bengal, just as later the occupation of Kurrachee led to the conquest of Scinde, and just as the still later settlement at Cairo led to the subjection of Upper Egypt, so the British foothold at Rangoon led to the complete possession of Burmah.

We pass over another twenty-five years and reach the reign of King Theebaw, whose rule was disgraced by horrible cruelties and atrocities.

Burmah in its history reminds us of its climate. It is a mixture of sunshine and rain storms. While its story contains pleasant pictures of a simple, joyous people, delighting in music and dancing, content with their cattle and fields of waving corn, its pages are also stained with tales of butchery and heartless massacres.

Theebaw was blind to the evil days which he was

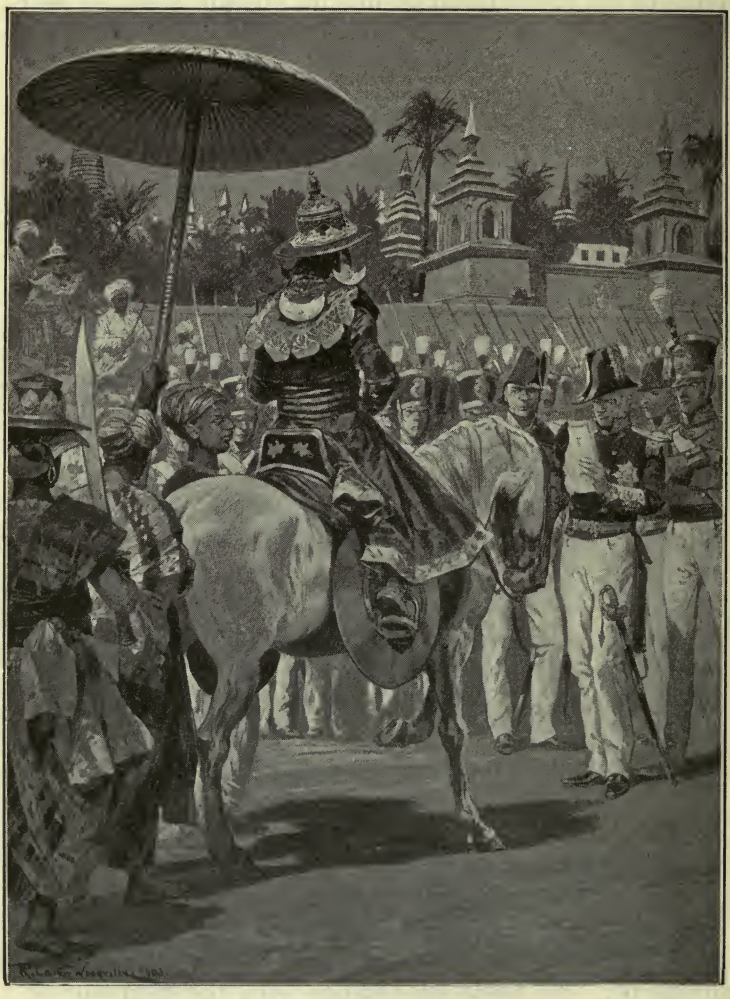
creating for himself, but his misrule brought down on him the anger of the Indian Government, who demanded that he should receive a British representative at his capital of Mandalay. To this he returned a refusal, and the third Burmese War was the result. The opposition offered to the progress of the troops was, this time, feeble in the extreme, and the British General led his forces without much difficulty to the stockade of the palace of Mandalay.

No one had ever before been allowed to approach the Golden Throne except on his knees and elbows, but now the days of suppliants before the throne were ended, and King Theebaw was required to surrender himself without reserve to the British. He and his Queen were hurried off to Madras to be kept there as prisoners, while the royal city of Mandalay and the great kingdom of Upper Burmah were added to the British dominions. Thus in a small way the conquest of India had repeated itself. From coast settlements the British had advanced to the highway afforded by its chief river, and, by means of this, they had pursued their course from mouth to source, and thus little by little they had secured their hold over the whole.

CHAPTER XXIV.

The Historic Gateway of India.

We have already noticed how Napoleon's designs on India caused Wellesley to require from the Native States of the Deccan an acknowledgment of British supremacy. But Napoleon's schemes did not end with his defeat in Egypt. He made an alliance with the Emperor of Russia, and used this to urge a Russian advance on India, so as to destroy the source of British commercial



THE SURRENDER OF RANGOON TO THE BRITISH IN 1824.

supremacy. He even suggested that France and Russia might combine in an expedition which should make its way through Turkey and Persia.

Napoleon's plan was never seriously entertained by the Russians, but it is worthy of notice because it shows the value of the defences of our sea-girt isle. Napoleon was actually planning a land march across the whole of Europe and half of Asia in order to injure a country which lay only twenty miles from his own shores. Although there was never any real danger that the expedition would even start on its way, the British were greatly alarmed at the prospect.

They decided to make friends with the States whose territories lay on the line of route to the north-west borders of India, and sent missions to Ranjit Singh, the chief of the Sikhs, whose capital was at Lahore, to the Amir of Afghanistan at Kabul, to the Amir of Scinde, whose capital was at Hyderabad on the Indus, and to the Shah of Persia. But, with the overthrow of Napoleon, the danger of invasion passed away, and the only result of the mission was an understanding with Ranjit Singh, that he should give up his claim to exercise sovereignty over the Sikhs south of the Sutlej. Through this peace with the British he was able to extend his territory beyond the Indus up to Peshawar, and annex Kashmir.

By 1828 Russia managed to secure paramount influence with the Shah of Persia, who handed over some of his north-western districts. The Russians then claimed from the Afghans some territory on their north-east borders. Trouble arose within Afghanistan, during which the Amir, a weak ruler, was driven out, but, in return for the famous Koh-i-nur diamond, secured for a time the support of Ranjit Singh of the Punjab. His subjects again drove him out of his land, and the

British most unwisely took up his cause, believing that he would be a faithful friend.

Ranjit Singh, though still called "our ancient and faithful ally," refused to let the British forces pass through his dominions along the direct road to Afghanistan, and so the expedition had to pass through Scinde. A long and weary march through an unknown country, where neither supplies of food nor water were forthcoming, brought them to the Bolan Pass. Through this bleak pass, the dispirited and half-fed soldiers continued their way to Quetta, and thence onwards to Kandahar, a city supposed to have been founded by Alexander the Great. Thence the expedition marched to Kabul.

But the British were upholding a hopeless cause. The man on whose behalf they had invaded the land, could not maintain his authority unless supported by bayonets, and, as it was remarked, you can do anything with bayonets except sit on them. Moreover, the wild, fierce Afghan hill-men would not brook outside interference. Some of the members of the British expedition went out of their way to provoke the resentment of the Afghans, which rose to such a height that they swore that not one of the foreigners should be allowed to leave their land alive.

They concealed their anger for a time, but at last their pent-up wrath burst like a storm cloud, and they proceeded to take their revenge, killing whomsoever they could.

The British envoy decided to retreat to India by the shortest route, which lay along the banks of the Kabul river. It was winter, and men, women and children tried to make their way through deep snows and icy rivers, their clothes frozen and stiff. The hill clansmen hung closely on their flanks, firing into their straggling

ranks at every turn, and of the 16,500 who marched out of Kabul, only one man reached Jelalabad, the nearest British station on the frontier.

Another expedition was necessary to show the Afghans that the British had power to punish their treachery, but after this, they were only too glad to withdraw their forces to the lands beyond the Sutlej.

One result of the war with the Afghans was the conquest of Scinde by Sir Charles Napier.

CHAPTER XXV.

Scinde.

We have seen how the lands on the east of India, Bengal, Assam and Burmah, owe their fertility to their rivers and heavy rainfall. The west of India north of the Gulf of Cambay is noted for its dryness. Especially is this the case with the country in the lower basin of the Indus, about which the Afghans have a proverb, "The sun of Scinde will turn a white man black, and roast an egg."

Much of this land on the west is unproductive because of the absence of water, and a vast extent of waste land was created by the Amirs, or chiefs, who wanted large tracts to form their hunting preserves.

The attention of the British was first attracted to Scinde at the time of the Afghan war of 1838, when it was seen that it was becoming increasingly necessary to prepare for foreign invasions on that side. Moreover, after the disastrous Afghan war, the Amirs of Scinde did not show much respect for the British, so it was resolved to make war on them and annex their territory. Sir Charles Napier, who could see both sides of the question, wrote: "We have no right to seize Scinde, yet we shall do so, and a very useful and humane piece of rascality it will be."

The first place to be taken was Kurrachee on account of its value as a port. The Sindu is not a man of war, and Kurrachee came into the hands of the British without the firing of a shot. But when Sir Charles Napier took the field he was opposed by paid men from Baluchistan—mountaineers who possessed great courage and had been warriors and plunderers from their very cradles.

Thus, on the battle-field, it was only by their higher discipline that Napier's men were able to assert their superiority, and after their victories in the field, the British had to form camel-mounted flying columns for fighting in the desert. The final work was in the mountain defiles, some of which are so deep and narrow that they almost shut out the daylight. Yet, in spite of the difficulties of the campaign, the loyalty and devotion of the soldiers to Napier are indicated on his statue in Trafalgar Square by the words: "Erected by public subscriptions, the most numerous subscribers being private soldiers."

Napier, when he had completed his conquest, telegraphed to the Governor-General the Latin word which means "I have sinned" (Scinde), perhaps showing that he still regarded his work as a "piece of rascality."

Napier's opinion of the land was a highly favourable one. He thought that by using the waters of the Indus for irrigation the country would become most productive. Moreover, he pointed out that the fields of salt were inexhaustible. In the neighbourhood of Kurrachee, but some three or four miles from the coast, water is pumped out of the ground, and this water is so salt that, with the strong sun and a northerly breeze, as much as 5 cwt. can be produced during twenty-four hours in a pan twenty-five feet square.

The cost of production is 1½d., the selling price 5s.,

and as this is the sole property of the Government, the sale of salt forms a large part of the Indian revenue.

The camel is the most important animal in the province, for without him, many parts of the land would be impassable, seeing that the depth of sand makes it impossible to use the horse. Of late years many of the camels of Scinde have been exported to the Australian colonies for travelling in the interior, and since a camel is perhaps the most ill-tempered and unmanageable beast of burden in creation, their drivers have had to accompany them. In marked contrast with the camel is the elephant, which is largely used in some parts of India, in Ceylon and in Burmah for carrying heavy loads, for the elephant is most teachable and patient.

The importance of the Province of Scinde and the port of Kurrachee in the scheme of India's defence is shown in the route taken by the North-western railway. From Kurrachee, the line follows the course of the Indus through Hyderabad to Multan, Lahore and Amritsar, where it meets with the line from Delhi to Peshawar.

But, apart from its nearness to possible scenes of strife, it has been found possible, with engineering skill, to show that in the future Scinde will in all probability live up to Napier's prophecy, who, on his farewell to India, exclaimed, " You will yet be the glory of the East ; would that I could come again, Kurrachee, to see you in your grandeur ! "

CHAPTER XXVI.

The Punjab.

Of all the influences in India that of caste is the strongest, and nothing has appeared so far which is likely to break it down. The Buddhists, who were opposed to the system,

lost their power in India largely owing to their opposition to it. Even the Indian branch of the Mohammedans found it necessary to adopt many of the caste rules; but, in spite of the large number of its supporters throughout the land, there have continually arisen men who have regarded it with dislike.

Among such was the founder of the Sikh religion, a religion which never travelled farther than the Punjab. As a challenge to the oppression and persecution of the Mohammedans, the Sikh organization partook of a military character. Its rite of baptism was by water and the sword, and held its members together as closely as the most rigid caste customs.

Their sacred city was Amritsar, that is, "the pool of immortality," and the sacred tank still exists to attract large numbers of pilgrims. On the break-up of the Mogul Empire, the Sikhs established themselves in the Punjab, and such was their power and influence that the British were quite content to regard them as a sufficient bulwark to defend the land entrance on the North-west into India.

The situation of the Punjab is the key to its history. It lies just in the angle where India can be invaded overland. On every other side the land is guarded by the sea, or by mountains and deserts impassable for large bodies of men. Thus, the Punjab has had to bear the brunt of all the land invasions. As a result, its people are more manly and less careful about distinctions of caste.

Often the Punjab has been annexed to Afghanistan and detached from India proper, but at the beginning of the nineteenth century a strong ruler arose who welded the Punjab into a powerful military state. This leader was Ranjit Singh, the "Lion of Lahore."

Surajah Dowlah and Nana Sahib have taken stronger hold on the imagination of the British people, yet probably Ranjit Singh is the most marvellous man of Indian history. At his death there was the usual struggle for the succession, such a struggle as has again and again given Europeans the opportunity of strengthening their hold on India. The Sikh soldiery got out of hand, and crossed the Sutlej into British territory. This led to the First Sikh War, where the British, after four stubborn battles, occupied Lahore. A treaty was then arranged by which it was agreed that the territories between the Beas and the Sutlej should be handed over to the British, that the Sikh army should be reduced to 24,000 men and fifty guns, that one and a half million pounds should be paid towards the expenses of the war, that Kashmir and the other adjacent Himalaya country should be handed over to one of Ranjit Singh's Generals, and the remainder of that king's dominions entrusted to his infant son, who should rule under British guidance.

The Koh-i-nur was handed over to the British General, who sent it to Queen Victoria.

All these conditions were regarded by the Sikhs as interference, and were most galling to their pride. After two years they arose to try to remove the British oversight. Again the fighting was most desperate. Lord Gough, venturing at Chillianwallah to attack the Sikhs in a strong position with their front covered with thick jungle, dotted with ponds and swamps, barely escaped defeat. He, however, managed to defeat them utterly at Gujerat; and, after further fighting, the last of the Sikh soldiers surrendered at Rawal Pindi. The Punjab was then absorbed in the British Empire, and placed under the guidance of Sir John Lawrence, who ruled with such wisdom that, when the Indian Mutiny broke out some nine

years later, the people of the Punjab were not only induced to remain quiet, but actually came forward to take the British side.

The great plains of the Punjab extend over an area twice the size of England. At a distance from the rivers, one cannot rely on finding water. The whole of the great plain would be alike throughout, were it not for the differences in rainfall, which increases by regular steps from four inches in the extreme south to nine times that amount near the foot of the Himalayas.

In the south, the country reminds one of Egypt, where cultivation is possible only by the side of the rivers, or on land watered by canals. The green strips, with their groves of date-palms and other trees, are the sites of the villages. Between the fertile fringes of one river and the next are desert wastes. Over these roam herds of cattle and camels. Flocks of sheep and goats find their way to spots where showers have fallen and grass has sprung up. The dryness of some of this land can be estimated from the fact that there is a salt range of hills containing enormous masses of rock salt.

As we enter the northern half of the plain, the number of villages increases, though cultivation has to be assisted by water from wells worked by Persian wheels, till, on the extreme northern edge, there is an almost unbroken sheet of luxuriant vegetation, marked by numerous villages and groves of beautiful trees.

This account of the Punjab plain will show why the British have devoted so much attention to irrigation canals, which are managed by a large staff of British and native engineers. Spots which a few years ago were almost entire deserts are now growing crops of corn and cotton and supporting large numbers of people. Isaiah's vision is being realized : " Then shall the lame man leap

like a hart, and the dumb man sing a song, for there shall be rivers in the wilderness and running streams in the desert."

CHAPTER XXVII.

The Vale of Kashmir.

TRAVELLERS along the Jhelum valley are often heard to express their indignation that the British, at the treaty of Lahore made with the Sikhs, should have let slip the prize they might have secured in the Valley of Kashmir. But the Governor-General of that day thought there would be too great a risk in trying to hold such a difficult country as Kashmir, which was quite impassable for six months of the year, and was distant 300 miles from the Sutlej.

So "all the hilly or mountainous country east of the river Indus, and west of the Ravee" was restored to native hands, though, in token of the British supremacy, the Maharaja was to present each year to the British Government one horse, twelve shawl goats, and three pairs of Kashmir shawls.

The whole state is mountainous, in fact it is the "grandest Alpine region of India," and the people live in the various valleys hidden here and there among the mountains. Of these the most important is that traversed by the Jhelum, containing the town of Srinagar, the "city of fortune." The valley is known as the "Vale of Kashmir." It lies about 6,000 feet above the level of the sea, is nearly 100 miles long, and from twenty to twenty-five miles wide.

One of its greatest charms is its variety. By the wayside are to be found the familiar flowers of England. There are frequent scenes to remind one of the shaded woodlands and smooth lawns of the English parks.

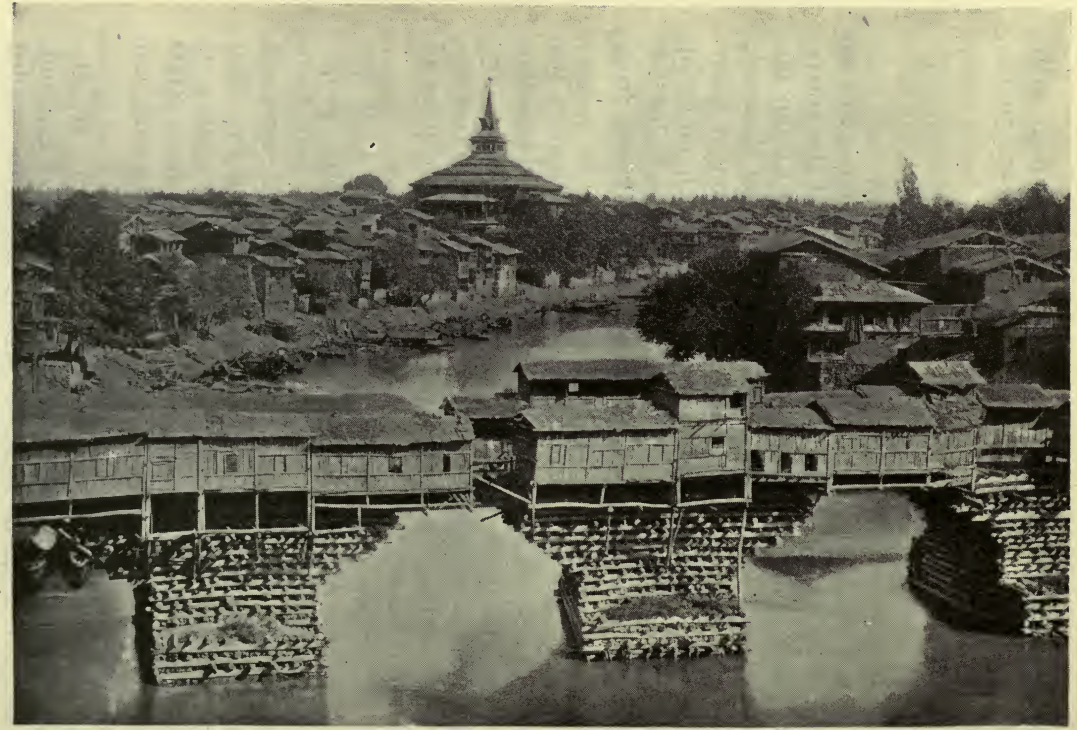


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SRINAGÁR, THE CAPITAL OF KASHMIR.

The mountain views will suggest at one time the highlands of Wales, at another the mountains of Switzerland, while, in parts, the mighty mountain masses and huge glaciers will make the traveller half-ashamed that he has admired such petty examples in Europe.

There is perhaps no more beautiful spot in the world than the Dal Lake, which combines in itself the charms of all the lakes of Switzerland and Italy. From the heights can be obtained views of the windings of the Jhelum, which are said to have suggested the patterns of the world-renowned Kashmir shawls.

Not the least of the charms of the "happy valley" is that each visitor can select the climate which is best suited to his taste. Every 100 feet of elevation brings a new aspect of climate and vegetation, and in a short ride of thirty miles one can escape from overpowering heat to a climate delightfully cool, or can flee from wearisome wet weather to a dry and sunny atmosphere.

In spring the riverside meadows are resplendent with myriads of bluebells. Autumn produces its wealth of crimson and golden colours, and it is at such times chiefly that one feels the truth of the description of the vale as the "Earth's Eden."

The belt of warlike tribes, and, still more, the well-guarded position among the mountains, saved Kashmir from invasion by the victorious Mohammedans when they rushed over the Indus, but, when internal quarrels split up the mountain state, the Mogul Emperors found their opportunity to enter into possession. Following this, many of the Emperors found the valley a charming garden of delights.

With the decay of the Mogul Empire, the formidable Sikh power arose and extended its influence into Kashmir, which was, as we have seen, after the Sikh

wars allowed to remain in native hands. For many years it remained a country closed to travellers, but now restrictions are removed, and hundreds of tourists spend their summer months in the valley. Large hotels have sprung up at Srinagar, and the banks of the river are lined with house-boats which remind Englishmen of Oxford or Henley, and earn for the town its title of the "Indian Venice."

To the delight of the visitors, the land is rich in fruits—pears, apples, cherries, melons, mulberries, and even strawberries. The water-nut, a sort of chestnut, forms the chief food of many of the lake-side villagers, while its shells provide them with fuel.

The people, though claimed by the Mohammedans as belonging to their faith, are at heart Hindu. Very few ever go on a pilgrimage to Mecca, and they pay their devotion to those objects which are dear to the Hindus. Moreover, the people show the skill in finger-work which is characteristic of the Hindus.

Though the shawl industry now occupies little attention, they direct their energies to the making of carpets, which seem too delicate even for the light tread of the most refined ladies. In addition, they produce magnificently carved woodwork and excellent turquoise work. In fact, it is said that to yield to the temptation in Kashmir to buy beautiful things would be ruinous.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

The Indian Mutiny.

STEP by step the British had built up their vast possessions in India. The first wave of conquest guided by Clive had crept along the rich plains of Bengal as far as Oudh. Then came a pause till the days of the Marquess of

Wellesley, who directed a second wave which overwhelmed the troops of Mysore and put an end to the outrages of the Mahrattas.

The third wave of conquest flowed over another part of the territory, and in its course the insolent Burmese were humbled and the proud Sikhs forced to surrender the Punjab.

In Clive's day it had been thought sufficient to enter into a treaty of alliance and friendship with the rulers of Oudh. This arrangement really meant the maintenance of a corrupt king at the cost of five millions of people, and in 1856 it was resolved to terminate the miserable state of affairs by the annexation of Oudh. This will explain why one of the most dangerous storm centres in the Indian Mutiny was at Lucknow, the capital of Oudh.

About the same time as Oudh was annexed, the pension of £80,000 a year which had previously been paid to Nana Sahib, the adopted son of the last of the Mahratta chiefs, was withdrawn, and Nana Sahib, thirsting for revenge, left no stone unturned to stir up strife against the British.

Moreover, the word had gone forth that on the death of the last representative of the Mogul Emperor no one should be allowed to succeed to his title, and that the child who had been expected to ascend his throne would be removed from Delhi.

The country also was on the eve of the changes which the construction of railways and the introduction of the telegraph have never failed to effect, and the natives were becoming alarmed. To them the coming and going of rulers mattered little. Long centuries had made them accustomed to this. But alterations in their customs were another matter, and they thought that these

were in danger. Thus to the observant watcher there were signs calling for prudence and caution. As yet, however, these signs were like the monsoon clouds, which arise in the serene sky and are at first no bigger than a man's hand, but grow in size till their outburst threatens to overwhelm the land.

Vague stories came filtering through from the Crimea, telling of British defeats and of the preparations of the Czar of Russia to come and take India.

One of the whispers that gained wide circulation was that the British were fated to rule in India 100 years and no longer, and that, reckoning from the Battle of Plassey, their days were numbered. At this time of suspicion and unrest, the Government most unwisely adopted a rifle which required specially greased cartridges. Rumour said that these had been greased with the fat of pigs and cows, the former an abomination to all Mohammedans, the latter an object of reverence to all Hindus. It was only found out when too late what a terrible blunder had been committed, and a wildfire of revolt ran over the whole of Northern India with the exception of the Punjab. Yet, even at this time of enormous peril, when British rule was shaken to its depths, the remarkable lack of unity among the peoples of India was once more exhibited.

The sepoys of Bengal belonging to the higher castes joined the revolt, while the lower caste men of the Madras and Bombay armies remained faithful. The Gurkhas and the Sikhs were true to their trust, and most of the native princes held loyally to their allegiance.

Even thus, it meant that 40,000 British troops had to face a quarter of a million sepoys. The chief centres of the great conflict were Delhi and Lucknow. Nana Sahib had made his great rallying cry the restoration



THE RESIDENCY AT LUCKNOW AS IT APPEARS TO-DAY.

of the Mogul Emperors. Hence the determination of the rebels to hold fast to the capital at all costs, while the recent annexation of Oudh united the disaffected in the storming of Lucknow.

When peace was restored, the Government was taken out of the hands of the East India Company, and transferred to the Crown, and on New Year's Day, 1877, Queen Victoria became the first British Empress of India. In the proclamation which announced this event, it was declared that the British had no desire to extend their territories at the expense of the native princes, and that the rights of the latter should be respected.

The lessons of the rising produced great changes in the sepoy army. Before the Mutiny, the army consisted of six natives to every European. After the Mutiny, the proportion of natives was reduced and made two to one, while the artillery was placed almost entirely in the hands of the Europeans.

CHAPTER XXIX.

"Peace hath her Victories, no less renown'd than War."

In reading the story of the Indian Mutiny, we cannot fail to be struck with the outstanding valour of the different British commanders, and with the assistance which they received from the natives who remained loyal to them. But we are apt to forget the part that was played by the electric telegraph, which may be said to have enabled these commanders to accomplish their work.

When the mutineers at Meerut rose against their officers and marched against Delhi, the message was flashed to Lahore, and this enabled the Commissioner of

the Punjab to disarm the native troops before they had an inkling of what was happening. The value of the telegraph was so clearly shown on this occasion that steps were taken forthwith to complete the system throughout the length and breadth of the land, from the snow-covered mountains of Kashmir in the north to the cocoa-nut groves of Malabar in the south, and from the barren hills of the Scinde district in the west to the jungles and swamps of Assam and Burmah on the east.

The wires have been the pioneers, not only of the railways, but in many parts even of the roads, and the benefits which have been bestowed by the telegraph in times of peace are even greater than those conferred in times of war.

One of the greatest disasters than can befall India is a failure in the monsoon rains. In England the farmer may expect rain at any time in the year. In India, if he is disappointed at one monsoon, he has no further hope till the season comes round again. Moreover, the people live almost entirely on the produce of the land. The only animal food in general use is milk and its products. Consequently any failure in the crops over a large area brings famine.

But on no occasion have the rains failed over the whole continent of India, and this means that in times of distress one district can come to the rescue of another, provided means of communication are established between them. In olden days, such was the devastation produced that, now and again, the populations of isolated areas were entirely blotted out. Since the days of the telegraph and the railway the edge of the famines that have occurred has been blunted.

It is also possible by the use of the telegraph to place vast areas beyond the reach of droughts. The officers who

are placed in charge of the great canal systems of Upper India receive timely notice of the coming of storms and floods, and can thus regulate their discharge so that they shall not run to waste. Through irrigation canals, millions of acres of highly fertile land lying beyond the monsoon zone have been changed into rich fields, while the railways have brought profitable markets within the reach of producers.

The work of the British has conferred untold good on the land, and the Order of the Star of India is symbolic of much that has been done. With its emblem, a star, it speaks of the brightness which has always attracted mankind to the East, and with its motto, "Heaven's Light our Guide," it speaks of the thousands who, from the highest ranks to the lowest, have striven manfully to bring the day of brighter things to the teeming millions of the vast Indian territories.

"Not once or twice in our fair island story,
The path of Duty was the way to glory;
He, that ever following her commands,
On with toil of heart, and knees and hands,
Thro' the long gorge to the far light has won
His path upward, and prevail'd
Shall find the toppling crags of Duty scaled
Are close upon the shining tablelands
To which our God Himself is moon and sun."

TENNYSON.

CHAPTER XXX.

The Far East (Part I).

IN many of its features China resembles India. Both possess histories which date back to very ancient times.

Both have rich river valleys which are capable of supporting immense numbers of people. The husbandmen of each are famed for their patience and industry, and the products of both lands, the rice, the tea, the sugar, the opium, and the bamboo, are the same.

It was small wonder, therefore, that the merchants of the East India Company, having secured an entrance into India, should seek to open up their trade with the land of the Far East. Its teeming population, forming a large proportion of the whole of the human race, presented a wide field of buyers, who could offer in return much valuable produce from their soil, and rich silks the result of their skill.

But, in respect of trade with foreigners, the Chinese differed considerably from the Hindus. The latter, from their position in the centre of Asia, had become familiar with the traders who came from over the sea, or who had made their way by the caravan routes over the land. They had come into contact with the many peoples who had fought their way through the Khyber Pass and settled in India as conquerors, and, having grown accustomed to foreigners, whether as masters or as traders, they took little notice of strangers.

With the Chinese, the position was reversed. Their land was on the outer edge of the great land mass which forms Europe and Asia. It was shut off from its neighbours by lofty mountains or barren deserts, and, having been left alone for ages, what the Chinese desired above all else was to be allowed to continue in their isolation.

For long years, the relations between the nations of East and West resolved themselves into a struggle, in which the British strove to push their trade by all the means in their power, while the Chinese officials

were devising all kinds of obstacles to hinder their purpose.

After a time, the East India Company gained a small concession allowing them to trade at Canton, but this privilege had to be constantly safeguarded by a show of



HONG KONG WHEN IT FIRST BECAME A BRITISH POSSESSION.

force, for the Chinese are most true to their likes and dislikes, and continue to love or hate till death.

In 1840, an open rupture occurred between the two nations. The British merchants were deriving considerable gain from the trade in opium, which was grown in India and sold to the Chinese for a drug. Its harmful effects, however, were such that the Chinese authorities

tried to check its use, and in their zeal most unwisely destroyed 20,000 chests of opium, the property of British merchants. War followed, and in 1841 the British seized the island of Hong Kong as a permanent possession. The step was taken on the advice of Lord Napier, who considered it absolutely necessary that British subjects should have some such place of safety.

The prosperity which at once began to overtake the island is a good example of the result that usually follows the establishment of British rule. When first taken, Hong Kong was inhabited by only a few fishermen. Its bare granite rocks were entirely unproductive. Roads were altogether unknown. Yet, in a few months, the Chinese began to flock as residents to the town, which, in honour of the British Queen was named the "City of Victoria." In 1848 its population had risen to 24,000, and by 1850 this had still further increased to 72,000. The reason for this rapid advance is to be found in the fact that Hong Kong is a junction, or port of call, for ships of all nations.

At first sight, it would appear to be simply an outpost on the extreme edge of the Old World, but it is rather a centre from which trade radiates on all sides. Not only is it the head-quarters of the coasting steamers belonging to the China trade, but it is the calling place for the mail steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, of the Canadian and American Trans-Pacific boats, of the boats engaged in the Australian trade, and of the steamers running to Bangkok and the Philippines.

Thus, instead of being an out-of-the-way station, it is rather to be regarded as a most important link in an endless chain, and its usefulness will be still further increased with the opening of the Panama Canal.

CHAPTER XXXI.

The Far East (Part II).

BEFORE the British position in China had been secured by the seizing of Hong Kong, various stations on the way between India and China had been occupied. Look at the long, narrow tongue of land which is to be found on the east of the Bay of Bengal. An extension from the mountains of Burmah runs through this "Malay Peninsula," where vegetation grows so profusely that man has great difficulty in maintaining his own against the growth of forest and jungle. These mountains of the Malay Peninsula are remarkable for their mineral wealth, possessing as they do the richest tin mines in the whole world.

Towards the middle of the straits which separate the Malay Peninsula from the island of Sumatra, the passage narrows, and this spot was chosen by the Portuguese for their trading-post in this part of the world. In 1564 a Danish traveller likened this station of Malacca to Elsinore, because ships were required to pay dues there even though they had nothing to unlade.

Malacca gave its name to the Straits, which, however, are long as well as narrow, and the East India Company realised that they might just as well have a station of their own on the Straits. Consequently, in 1786, the merchants of the Company obtained the cession of the Island of Penang, which stands at the northern end of the bottle-shaped neck of the Straits, and for a time this was the only British possession in Further India.

It is a beautiful spot, perhaps one of the most beautiful in the East. Of still greater importance, it is very hilly, and being situated in the tropics, where fevers and other sicknesses prevail, its heights are visited for their

health-giving powers. So valuable was Penang considered as a sanatorium and for its commanding position that in the days of the East India Company it used to rank with Madras and Bombay as a Presidency.

Opposite to the mainland stands its sheltered harbour; and, to safeguard this from possible foes, the British took over the strip facing it on the mainland, which is known as the Wellesley Province.

But, whatever the importance of Penang, it is completely dwarfed when placed beside Singapore, the island at the southern extremity of the Malacca Straits. Singapore is indeed the key to their exit, and it is most strange that its importance was overlooked for so many years. At the beginning of the nineteenth century it was inhabited by the Malays, a race of people resembling in some respects the Chinese.

We shall see later how the West Indies became a nest of pirates or buccaneers, and the Malay Archipelago afforded similar facilities for bold, hardy men, like the Malays, to prey on the commerce which was passing over the seas around.

With a view to ending this piracy, and with the further intention of taking some trade away from the Dutch, who owned most of the islands in the neighbourhood, Sir Stamford Raffles, in 1819, seized the island of Singapore and founded the town of the same name. It was a stroke of genius, for, with the increase of trade with the Far East, Singapore became the meeting-point of all the routes and all the races of the Eastern seas.

The route to Hong Kong and the China Seas was still further safeguarded by the action of James Brooke, who secured for Britain possession of the northern portion of Borneo, one of the large islands of the world, being about the size of England and France put together.

So savage were its inhabitants that the expression, "the wild man of Borneo," has passed into a proverb, but it forms another instance of the benefits of British rule, for its inhabitants are now fast becoming peaceful traders.

Its staple product is sago, the pith of a species of palm, and Borneo is able to produce one-half of the world's supply. Pepper, india rubber, coffee, and sugar are also produced in abundance, and, when it is further mentioned that Borneo has rich supplies of coal, which are all-important for an Empire scattered in every part of the globe, it will be realized to some extent what an important possession Britain owes to the enterprise of James Brooke.

CHAPTER XXXII.

The West Indies.

We must now turn our attention to the days before the British had made their way to India at all, and consider Christopher Columbus, who, in his efforts to find out a western route, stumbled across a New World. He, however, did not recognize it as such, and when he sighted land he thought he had reached the object of his search, and the name of Indies still remains to record his mistaken notions.

A glance at the map of the World will show that Columbus in striking the West Indies had arrived at lands in the same latitude as that which he was seeking. But even more singular was the fact that he had reached a sea which was fated to draw attention away from the Mediterranean, and, just as the islands around Greece had been the stepping-stones from Asia to Europe, so the West India Islands were the stepping-stones by which the mainland of America was to be reached.

This will be the better seen as we consider the voyages of Columbus. But another consideration must be borne in mind. The Spaniards, in whose interests Columbus was acting, were intent on treasure-seeking, and passed by lands which gave no promise of gold, silver, or pearls. Besides this, they were a religious people, bent on the conversion of the heathen, and we shall constantly meet with names given by them to places, which refer to saints and religious festivals.

The map will help us to see the full meaning of the voyages of Columbus. On his first voyage he arrived at the group of coral islands which form the most northerly outpost—the Bahamas. In gratitude for his preservation from the dangers of the deep, Columbus called the island where he landed San Salvador (Holy Saviour). He then passed by other of the Bahamas, and reached Cuba, Tortuga (the tortoise), and Hayti or Santo Domingo (Holy Sunday).

On his second voyage, he steered his course more to the south, and the first land he sighted on this occasion was Dominica, so called because it came into view on a Sunday, a name, moreover, not unbecoming, for, of all the islands, Dominica is the most beautiful and the most fertile. He then began to work his way round the various islands towards Hayti, which, it will be observed, holds a central position in the group. This course brought him to an island which he named Montserrat, because its highlands reminded him of Spain. Nowadays, the name, from its association with lime juice, will recall the fact that the island has the largest and best cultivated plantations of the lime-fruit tree in the world.

Near to Montserrat is the island which he called St. Christopher in honour of the saint from whom he derived

his own Christian name, though now the name is often shortened to St. Kitts. Sailing on, he reached and named Santa Cruz (Holy Cross), and then continued his journey from Hayti to Jamaica.

By starting from Dominica, Columbus had taken the curve of the Leeward Islands, which, together with the other small islands, were peopled by a race known as the Caribs. As eaters of human flesh, they have given us the word "cannibal," and, as guarding the eastern shores of the great midland sea of America, they gave its name to the Caribbean Sea.

When Columbus set forth on his third voyage, he determined to sail still further south, and explore the regions near the equator. He resolved to name the first land he sighted in honour of the Trinity, and this will account for the name of Trinidad where he landed. He was delighted with the beauty of Nature's gifts which he found there. The hills clothed to their summits with forests, the shores lined with groves of cocoa-palms, the glorious colour of the sky, and the blue hollows of the mountains made a picture which reminded him of the fairest scenes of Valencia.

Leaving Trinidad, he again sailed towards San Domingo, passing the island now called Grenada, the "spice island of the West," which, however, was named by him Concepcion, and perhaps on this third voyage also he discovered the islands of St. Vincent, St. Lucia and Martinique.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

Treasure Hunters.

In the New World, it was only the parts which contained the gold, the silver, and the pearls that attracted the

Spaniards. They had no desire to cultivate the land and obtain the products of the soil, but, with feverish haste, they spread out over the districts where mines could be found, hardly glancing at the places where there were no signs of mineral wealth. This will account for the different estimation in which various parts were held.

Hayti or Hispaniola (Little Spain), was of considerable importance in their eyes. In fact, such was the thoroughness with which it was explored that its native inhabitants were entirely killed off through the hardships they suffered in the heartless search for gold. On the other hand, the lovely island of Trinidad, the "Pearl of the Antilles," was passed by almost unnoticed.

The explanation is to be found in the fact that, at the time of Columbus's discovery, the natives of Hayti were wearing golden ornaments, and, on his departure from them, Columbus expressed the hope that they would, at the time of his next visit, have collected for him a "ton of gold" with which his Sovereigns might undertake the conquest of Jerusalem from the infidels. The thing was utterly impossible. One of the chiefs offered to pay his share of the tribute in grain, but his offer was rejected with contempt.

This persistent demand for gold continued when the Spanish settlements were made in Hayti, and the search for it withdrew the people from the fields. Moreover, as in all tropical climes, there were no stores of provisions laid by, and in a short time the Spaniards could see the results of their work in fields lying waste on every hand.

On the other side, Trinidad was hardly looked at, because the riches of the pearl fishery in the neighbouring waters had attracted the whole of the Spaniards'

attention, and the name of the island of Margarita (pearl) bears witness to this search.

In looking at the settlements which were made by the Spaniards in the West Indies, we must bear in mind that their numbers were insufficient to occupy the whole land, and though they discovered the whole ring of islands, they neglected as a rule to settle in the smaller ones. Yet, like the dog in the manger, though they could not seize the whole, they objected to any one else taking a part, and this naturally aroused great resentment on the part of the other nations of Europe.

The French, the English, the Dutch, the Danes, and the Swedes, all came to share in the spoils. The Dutch, ever intent on the securing of trade, took possession of the island of Tobago, which, from its nearness to Trinidad and the northern coast of South America, formed an ideal position for their purpose.

The English, who were on the look-out for homes in which to settle, as well as for lands with which to trade, seized on Barbados, an outpost in the Atlantic which, from its position, has a climate better suited to Europeans than any other of the West Indian Islands.

In their common hatred and dread of the Spaniards, the men of different nations even divided up between them small islands. The English and French settled side by side in St. Kitts, the English and Dutch shared Santa Cruz between them, the French and Dutch still possess St. Martin in common.

The Spaniards had some difficulty in keeping their hold on the larger islands, but, according to the size, so, usually, was the strength of their grip. Thus, the British soldiers who were sent by Oliver Cromwell to capture Hayti were beaten off, and yet they easily managed to capture the smaller island of Jamaica.

But the men from whom the Spaniards had most to fear were not the regular settlers and soldiers of other nations, but the pirates, or, as they were usually called, the "buccaneers." Salt, though such an important article of diet in tropical countries, was scarce in the West Indies, but, as necessity has ever been the "mother of invention," the Indians had found out a way of preserving meat by smoking it over a fire of green branches and leaves. The sea-robbers from Europe copied this method from the natives, and thus gained the name of "buccaneers," that is, "the men who have provided themselves with dried meat."

In 1632, a party of these buccaneers captured Tortuga, which, with its supplies of turtles, provided them with an agreeable change from their dried meat, though the chief value of Tortuga, in their eyes, was that from its position near Hayti or Hispaniola they were enabled to prey on the Spanish trade. Tortuga became the "Sink of the West Indies," the refuge for the rovers of all nations. In addition, it was the market for their spoils, and the storehouse for their supplies.

Later, the buccaneers obtained a station on the shores of the Bay of Campeachy where they could keep an eye on the workings of the Spanish silver mines of Mexico. On the other side of the promontory of Yucatan they also settled, and the name of Belize, in British Honduras, is said to have derived its name from the Spanish attempt to pronounce the name of Wallis, an English buccaneer.

But the best piece of good fortune for the buccaneers was the capture of Jamaica by the British. The island was well provided with harbours, was well situated within the ring of Spanish possessions, and gave a hearty



Photo by *Davey & Hackney.*

THE PITCH LAKE, TRINIDAD.

welcome to all who were the foes of Spain. From it expeditions could descend on the treasure ships which were taking to Spain the gold and silver of Peru after it had been collected at Panama.

The search for treasure was not confined to the rough lawless buccaneers. It fascinated even such men as the noble-minded Sir Walter Raleigh, who staked his life on the quest for the El Dorado or gold-country in Guiana. From the map it will be seen that the rivers Orinoco and Amazon do in South America what the St. Lawrence and Mississippi do in the northern portion of the Continent. They carve out large portions of land which can be regarded almost as islands.

Speaking broadly, the Orinoco formed the southern boundary of the Spanish Main, that is, the *mainland* occupied by the Spaniards; the Amazon was the limit of the Portuguese possessions in Brazil; and in the land between the rivers, the Dutch, the French and the British found room to settle side by side in what is called Guiana.

Raleigh, on the way to his supposed El Dorado, stayed at Trinidad to caulk his ships with the pitch from the great lake which has made the island famous all over the world. Passing up the valley of the Orinoco his expedition failed to find the gold mine. It, however, provoked a quarrel with the Spaniards, and for this Raleigh lost his life.

His journey was not in vain, for his consideration towards the natives implanted in them a kindly feeling towards Englishmen. Yet, like the Spaniards, he had failed to recognize that the wealth of a country consists, not in the products of the mine, but rather in those things which Nature and man co-operate to produce from the soil.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

The Slave Trade.

THE fondness for sweet things is not confined to children; it extends to all mankind. The Crusaders had, during their stay in the East, grown familiar with a new article to gratify the taste for "sweets," and brought it to the notice of the peoples of Western Europe on their return. The demand for this "sugar" stimulated activities in various directions.

Among others, the discovery of the New World gave increased opportunities for the cultivation of the sugar-cane, and Columbus, on his second voyage, introduced it in the "lands of the setting sun." So suitable was the soil of the West Indies found to be for the crop, that visions of large profits opened out before the eyes of the Spaniards. In that day sugar was usually sold at 8d. a pound, a sum equivalent to about 3s. of our money at the present day.

But, while the demand for sugar was thus already existent when the Europeans reached America, they there became acquainted with another taste which also took strong hold on them. This was the smoking of tobacco. At first it appeared that tobacco-smokers were no better than juggling fire-eaters, but, no sooner was the practice tried, than large numbers of men became devoted to the "weed," and many of the English settlers found that tobacco plantations were a profitable source of income.

Now both the sugar-cane and the tobacco plant need a great deal of care and attention. The gentle, weakly natives whom the Europeans found in America showed themselves entirely unfitted for the necessary hard work. Indeed, in their days of freedom, they had never

felt the need for it, and they quickly perished when made to labour in the mines of Hispaniola or employed in the pearl fisheries off the Spanish Main.

To replace those who were thus killed off, natives were brought from the outlying islands, as many as 40,000 being transplanted from the Bahamas to Hispaniola. But even with this expedient, the supply of native labour soon became exhausted, and the situation grew serious. The pride of the Spaniards would not allow them to engage in work which belonged to peasants. Men of other nations would not come forward to till the land, for the tropical climate was ill-suited to sustained labour by white men. Moreover, Europeans who were willing to brave the terrors of the sea voyage were frightened by the stories of the cruelty of the Spaniards and the man-eating Caribs.

A glance at the map of the world will show that the homes of the negroes in tropical Africa are opposite to the West Indies, the outskirts of tropical America; and Captain (afterwards Sir) John Hawkins came forward to supply the demand for suitable labour. With three vessels he sailed to Sierra Leone on the west coast of Africa, and obtained 300 slaves whom he carried to Hispaniola.

It may seem strange that this work should have been undertaken by an Englishman, but the Spaniards were unable to send and fetch negroes from Africa, because a Papal Bull had reserved to the Portuguese all the rights east of a certain line. The slave trade, thus started, grew with the growth of the sugar and tobacco industries, till, in the latter part of the eighteenth century, it was estimated that 100,000 slaves were imported yearly.

But by this time the conscience of Europe had been awakened against the system, and in 1807 an Act was

passed by the British Parliament abolishing the trade throughout the British dominions. Just as Sierra Leone had been the station from which Hawkins had drawn his first supplies of slaves, so, towards the end of the eighteenth century, it became the British settlement, with its capital of Freetown, where the slaves could be brought back and set free.

In addition to the negroes, who were sent out to work in the sugar and tobacco plantations, there were many white men transported to America as a punishment for offences against the state. These comprised Irishmen, Scotsmen and Englishmen, and three events in English history are to be associated with this practice.

When Cromwell visited Ireland to bring that land completely under British rule, he caused many of the Irish to be shipped to the colony of Barbados, and the same fate was meted out by him to nearly 8,000 Scots who were taken prisoners at the Battle of Worcester. Some thirty years later, after the Battle of Sedgemoor, many of the miserable followers of the Duke of Monmouth were treated to exile in the same way. This will explain why Barbados became a centre from which colonists proceeded to Tobago, St. Lucia, Trinidad, and other of the West India Islands.

CHAPTER XXXV.

The Sovereignty of the Seas.

THE second half of the eighteenth century consists of one strenuous struggle between the British and the French for sovereignty in both the Old and the New World. The contest falls into periods marked by three great wars, the Seven Years' War, the War of American Independence, and the War of the French Revolution.

We have seen how, in India, Clive and Wellesley upheld the British interests during the first and the last of these wars. We shall read in a later chapter how, in Canada, Wolfe turned the tide in favour of the British. In this chapter we have to consider how Rodney and Nelson secured for Britain the sovereignty of the seas, and what part the West Indies played in the fight.

The Seven Years' War opened badly for Britain. From India came the news of the Black Hole of Calcutta. From the Far West arrived tidings of failure on the banks of the Ohio and the St. Lawrence. Similar ill-success attended the fortunes of the British in the West Indies, and, after four years' fighting, the French could claim that the British had lost 2,539 vessels as compared with the 944 which they had taken.

This was the state of affairs when Rodney arrived to take charge of the fleet at Barbados and the Leeward Islands, but in the following year he began to turn the tables. Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Martinique and Dominica were taken from the French, and soon not one of the Windward Islands remained in their possession.

Yet, on the conclusion of peace, Britain secured such valuable concessions in India and Canada, that she felt she could afford to be generous in the West Indies, and she made several restorations.

She gave back Guadeloupe and Martinique, retaining Dominica which lay between them, so as to weaken their influence. Rodney would also have liked Britain to retain St. Lucia and give St. Vincent in its place, but the French were anxious to keep the former because of the beautiful harbour of Castries, and in the end they got their way.

The war with the American colonists gave the French

and Spaniards another opportunity of fighting Britain with the object of recovering some of their lost possessions. The value set on the different West Indian Islands is shown by the fact that while the French proceeded to attack and take Dominica, the British retaliated by taking St. Lucia. This was the solitary success of the British, and, one by one, the islands began



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

to surrender to the French. Rodney was retained nearer home because the Spaniards were devoting all their energies to the siege of Gibraltar, the "Key to the Mediterranean," and it was necessary for the English admiral to try to relieve it.

After he had succeeded in this, he was sent to the West Indies. The French had made their head-quarters at Martinique, so he stationed himself at St. Lucia,

where he could watch their movements, and in its harbour make preparations for the coming fight.

After a time he managed to bring his foes to an engagement. Just as the first ship of the English fleet had reached the last of the French ships, Rodney's ship was seen to turn and "break through the line." This was the first time in naval warfare that such a plan had been adopted. The movement completely puzzled the French. Rodney gained a complete victory; and it is interesting to note that the same tactics were afterwards adopted by Nelson at the Battle of Trafalgar. The greatness of Rodney's victory is to be seen in the fact that, though the French had, during the war, taken a number of the British islands, they were allowed to keep Tobago only.

Three years after peace was restored, there occurred the "great hurricane," one of those alarming convulsions which, together with earthquakes, so frequently bring widespread disaster to the West Indies. In the case of the great hurricane, houses were removed like toys, fortresses were swept away like trees, ships were carried far inland, plantations strewn with huge blocks, islands broken into reefs, and reefs piled up into islands. The great hurricane was, however, remarkable, not only for its violence, but also because the French and the English sank their common differences when brought face to face with such a gigantic catastrophe.

The French Revolution, with its motto of "Freedom, equality, and fraternity," was bound to have a tremendous effect in the West Indies, where there was a large slave population. Moreover, in many of the Windward Islands the white inhabitants were of French descent and in sympathy with the mass of their countrymen. Napoleon conceived the idea that he might regain some of

his country's lost possessions, and threatened the West Indies equally with the East.

Nelson, on one occasion, knowing Napoleon's plans, raced to the West Indies in search of the fleets of France and Spain. Bridgetown, the capital of Barbados, the island to which he directed his course, has its Trafalgar Square with its Nelson Monument raised, as its inscription states, to the memory of "the preserver of the British West Indies in a moment of unexampled peril."

At the end of the war with Napoleon, Britain added St. Lucia to her dominions, and thus Rodney's wish was gratified that the "Gibraltar of the Gulf of Mexico," with its coveted harbour, should fall to the nation which had gained the sovereignty of the seas.

Another result of the ideas of the French Revolution is to be found in the history of the island of Hayti, or Hispaniola, where the French had supplanted the Spaniards. Hayti, following the lead of France, became a republic, and, like its model in Europe, was the scene of great outrages and excesses. The black men so outstripped the white men in their atrocities and crimes that men began to doubt whether slavery was altogether a curse and liberty altogether a blessing.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

Transit Schemes.

We have already noticed some of the far-reaching effects of Napoleon's schemes, and in one or two directions no one could perhaps have seen where his plans would lead.

When all Europe lay at his feet, he managed to close all the ports of the Continent to British ships. This meant that the sugar produced in the West Indies could

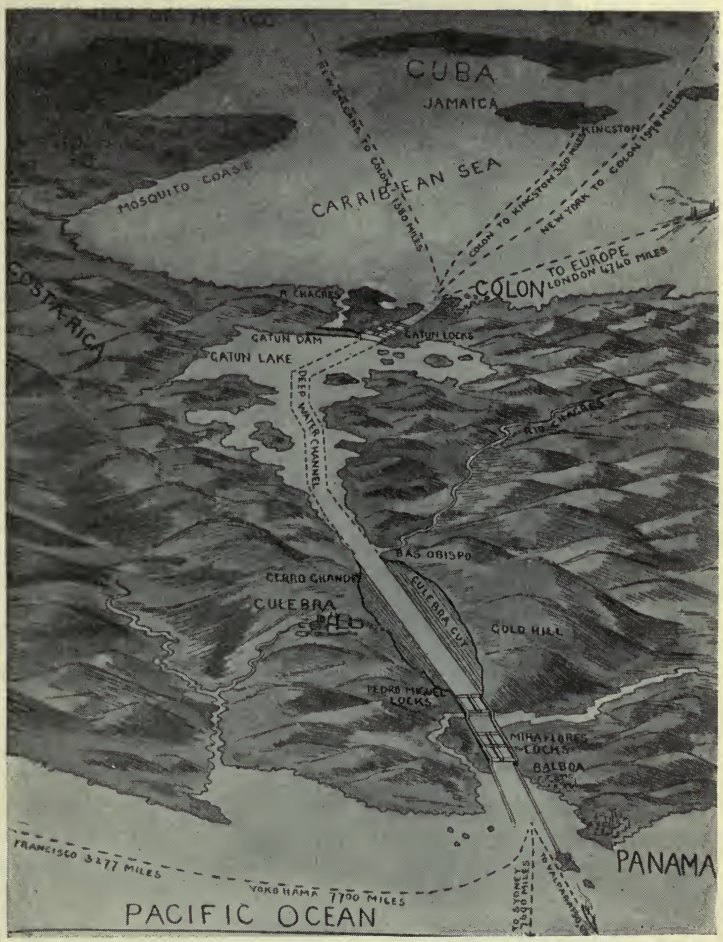


Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

THE PANAMA CANAL.

not find its usual market among the nations of Europe. But they were not to be deprived of their sweets, and

they turned their attention at once to find some home-grown substitute. They found that the beet-root would supply their needs, and the change which came over the sugar trade in consequence, together with the abolition of the slave trade, completely changed the outlook for the West Indies. Its prosperity departed, and, owing to its dependence on slave labour, many years passed before new industries could be found to take the place of those which had been destroyed.

In olden days a good supply of cotton had been produced, and with the shortage of cotton from the United States efforts were made to secure that "tree-wool" should once more become one of the main products of the islands. In addition, the fruit trade was developed, and, at the present time, this promises to lift the cloud which, during the nineteenth century, settled over the West Indies.

But perhaps the brightest hope for the future lies in the canal constructed across the isthmus of Panama. When the mines of Peru were providing the Spaniards with gold and silver, the road across the isthmus was in constant use. With the decline of the mines the road fell also into disuse, but the flow of emigration to the western coasts of America and to Australasia has provided the strongest inducement for the completion of an easy road by water such as is furnished by the Panama Canal. This will, undoubtedly, bring renewed wealth to the West Indies, and especially to Jamaica, the British island which lies nearest to its entrance.

In speaking thus, we have to guide us the construction of the canal across the Isthmus of Suez. Before the finding of the sea-route to India round the Cape of Good Hope, and the discovery of the New World, the Mediterranean had been the centre of the World's

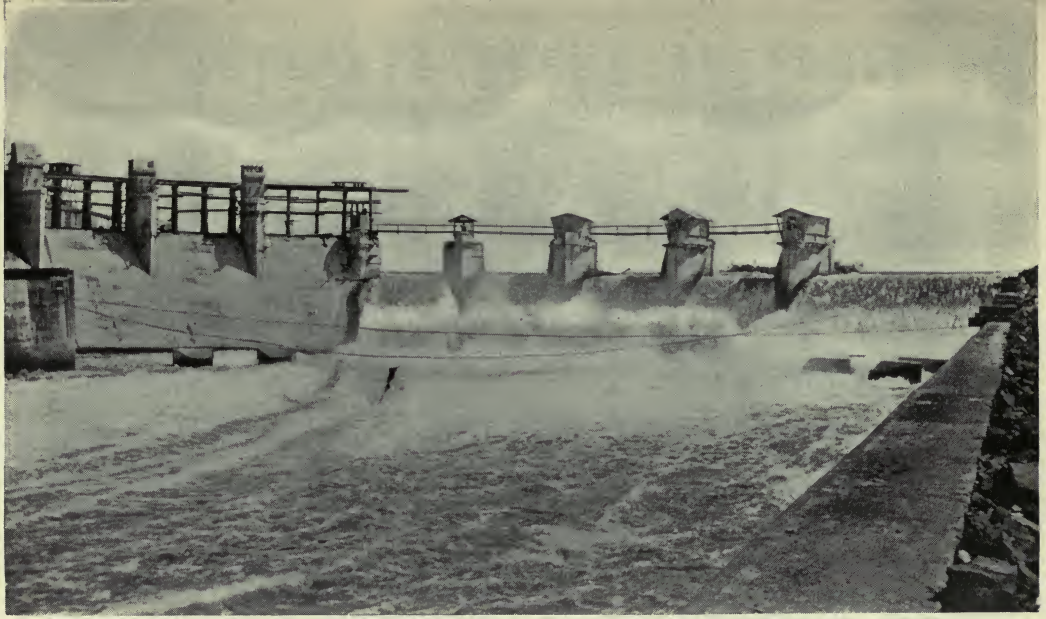


Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

VIEW OF THE GATUN DAM SPILLWAY IN THE PANAMA CANAL, DISCHARGING WATER AT THE RATE OF 16,000 CU. FT. PER SECOND.

(All the surplus water from the Gatun Lake discharges through this Spillway into the old channel of the Chagres River. When the lake has filled to the height required for working the canal, the Spillway will be capable of discharging at the rate of 140,000 cu. ft. per second during flood periods.)

trade. Owing to the use of the new routes, it fell into neglect, till the formation of the Suez Canal restored it to its former importance as a highway of nations.

It was Napoleon's idea not only "to hunt the English out of all their Eastern possessions, but also to cut the Isthmus of Suez," and from the time of the great Dictator's landing in Egypt till the construction of the canal, the scheme was never lost sight of. It was in anticipation of this that the British, in 1839, occupied Aden, as a sort of half-way house between Suez and Bombay, and thus completed the links in the chain which extended through Gibraltar and Malta.

The completion of the Panama Canal finds the British similarly prepared with their system of outposts. Standing in a position which commands the whole of the North American coast are the islands of Bermuda, remarkable alike for their striking isolation and extraordinary strategic value.

Moreover, the trade to and from Cuba, Jamaica, the Gulf of Honduras, and the northern shores of South America must pass between the islands of the Bahamas, another important outpost. To crown all, Kingston, in Jamaica, possesses the finest harbour in the whole of the West Indies, and this faces directly towards the line of the canal. Truly, in much that has been done by the makers of the British Empire they were building better than they knew.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Newfoundland.

THE wish to share in India's wealth, and the discovery of the mariner's compass induced the bolder sailors of western Europe to strike out into fresh paths. As a

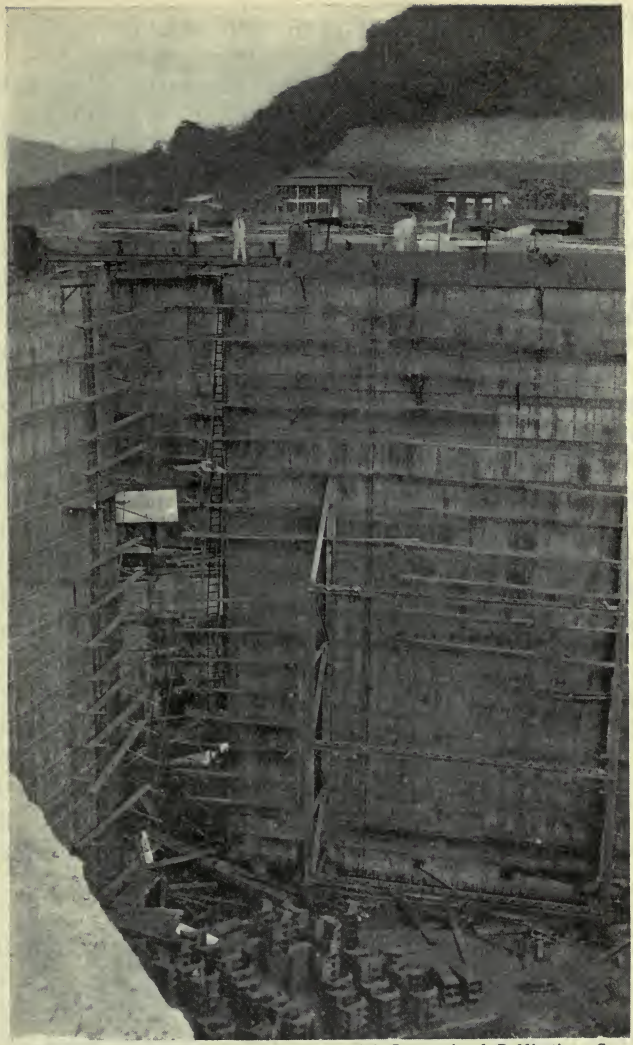


Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

VIEW OF STEEL LOCK-GATE AT PEDRO MIGUEL, PANAMA CANAL.

(The Lock-gates vary in length from 70 to 90 feet; they are worked by electricity.)

result, Columbus, in 1492, discovered the West Indies, and, five years later, Henry VII gave John Cabot permission to set out from Bristol on a similar voyage of discovery.

After sailing for fifty-three days, Cabot reached the land which we now know as Newfoundland. A glance at the map of North America will show that this island appears to hold out a hand of welcome to travellers from the British Isles.

It would seem, also, that, at some time or other, it was a part of the mainland, for the line of the Labrador coast on the north, and that of Nova Scotia on the south, will be seen to fit in the angle made by the Newfoundland coasts.

In 1499 Cabot's son Sebastian set out on another voyage to Newfoundland, and, coasting along Labrador, returned with the news that the seas around the newly found land were rich in fish beyond any that were known in Europe.

At this time, the fishing-grounds of the North Sea and those off the coast of Norway were supplying most of the fish needed for the fasts enjoined by the Church. The Dutch had for many years been devoting themselves to the catching and curing of herrings, and with such success that it was sometimes said of their capital, "Amsterdam is built on herrings."

The Lofoden Islands, lying on a shallow bank, also gave employment to the sea-fishers of Norway, but their wealth of cod-fish was small in comparison with that of the banks of Newfoundland. The discoveries of Cabot opened up the latter sources of supply, and almost at once men were attracted to the newer fishing-grounds. Such was their productiveness that the largest catches never seemed to exhaust the supply in the slightest.



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

THE FAMOUS CULEBRA CUT IN THE PANAMA CANAL.

(This view shows the deepest section of the canal, where the depth of excavation to the bottom level is 500 feet.)

The explanation of this is to be found partly in the enormous productivity of the fish, and partly in the huge amount of food which is furnished them from the shattered fragments of icebergs.

These Arctic glaciers, borne southwards by the cold currents, carry with them the small forms of animal life on which fish feed. This food has been described as a "vast ocean of living slime."

Strange as it may seem, this "living slime" is most abundant in the coldest waters, and thus forms a contrast to the food of land animals which is supplied from the tropical regions of the globe. The slime furnishes food for the herrings and smaller fish, which in their turn are devoured by the cod.

This sea-harvest on the banks of Newfoundland, which needs neither ploughing nor sowing, attracted the fishermen from the shores of England, Portugal, and France, and the names around the Gulf of St. Lawrence bear witness to this fact.

Cape Breton, one of the French names left us in America, recalls the enterprising sailors of Brittany, who, with the Biscayans, found their way westwards. The strait of Belle Isle on the north of Newfoundland likewise speaks to us of men of the same nationality.

To the earliest explorers it was not clear that Newfoundland formed one large island. It resembles Norway in the fact that its coast line is deeply indented, so much so, that the makers of the first maps made it appear as an archipelago.

The banks on the south of the island were once thought to have been formed by deposits from icebergs, but they are now known to be made up mainly of sand and shells; so that there may be now in the making, cliffs such as we find in Kent.

A glance at the map of Newfoundland will still further emphasize what has been said about the cod-fishing. The inside of the country is almost as much a blank as the parts of Africa about the equator. But it is a land that must be measured by its shore line rather than by its inland settlements.



COD-FISHING OFF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Wherever there is a harbour or a shelter, there hamlets and villages fringe the shore, and Nature has been most bountiful in the distribution of havens. The Newfoundlanders stand, as it were, with their backs to the land, and fix their gaze upon the sea. There is hardly an abode three miles from salt water, and in winter, when the

land is ice-locked, the fishermen turn their attention to the catching of seals.

The fishing-grounds must not only be valued for their bountiful harvests: they are useful also as the training-ground for sailors. This was recognized even in the days of Queen Elizabeth, who, in the interests of the navy, provided for the establishment of "political fasts" in order to stimulate the consumption of the fish caught by Englishmen in foreign parts.

The wealth of its sea-fisheries has rather blinded men to the fact that Newfoundland has other resources. Like the eastern portion of Canada the island is abundantly wooded, and there are numerous lakes and rivers. As in Canada, these are the haunts of beavers; but the animal for which the island is best known is its noble Newfoundland dog.

In the future, it is possible that Newfoundland will be famous for its minerals. An important coalfield has been discovered near the Grand Lake. Lead and silver are also found. But the greatest wealth is in copper ore, the supplies of which seem almost as endless as the supply of codfish.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

The St. Lawrence (Part I).

Some forty years after Cabot's voyage to Newfoundland, Jacques Cartier, a sailor of St. Malo in Brittany, made his way across the Atlantic on a mission from the French King. He explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which was called, at that time, the "Great Bay," and returned to his native land without having seen the great river which flowed into it.

His voyage lasted from April until September, the

period when the coast is free from ice, and sailing along the shores of Labrador, Cartier noted how it was covered with rocks and moss, a land so forbidding in its appearance that it was most likely "the land given by God to Cain."

Yet, so great already was the fame of its neighbouring fishing-ground, that Cartier found, in one of the harbours of the Labrador coast, a fishing vessel ready to return to the port of Brest. He passed through the strait of Belle Isle, and sailing south-west saw the red cliffs of the Magdalen islands rising like cones out of the waters.

Passing by what was many years later named Prince Edward Island, he came to Miramichi Bay, in the present New Brunswick, and reached an inlet which he entered on a hot July day, and so named it Chaleur (heat). At this point he came into contact with the natives, who were probably a branch of the great Algonquin nation inhabiting a large part of the continent.

Cartier was charmed with the natural beauties of the place, a "country as fine as one would wish to see," with abundance of wheat, peas growing as large and as thickly as if they had been cultivated, red and white barberries, strawberries, red and white roses, and other flowers of a sweet and delightful perfume, meadows of rich grasses, and rivers full of salmon.

Journeying to the pretty bay of Gaspé, the explorer raised a cross on which the arms of France were inscribed. Then he returned to France by way of the strait of Belle Isle.

On his second voyage, Cartier passed again through the strait on the north of Newfoundland, and on the 10th of August entered the Gulf which he called St. Laurent, in honour of the Saint whose festival fell on that day.

Hugging the northern shores he passed between the island of Anticosti and the mainland. Passing by the river Saguenay in the kingdom of the same name, Cartier arrived at an island where he obtained some hazel-nuts "better tasting than those of his own land." He therefore called it the Isle aux Coudres (hazel-nuts).

Still keeping to the northern shore, with its well-wooded mountains stretching away to the northward, Cartier came at last to an anchorage between the present Isle of Orleans and the mainland. Here stood the Indian village of Stadacona, under the rocky promontory which was later to be crowned by the city of Quebec. The beautiful trees were a delight to the visitors, but especially pleasing were the great quantities of vines, "such as we had never before seen."

Although it was the middle of September, Cartier determined to proceed up the river as far as Hochelaga, of which the Indians were continually speaking. The country bordering the river between Stadacona and Hochelaga delighted the French "on account of the springs of excellent water, the beautiful trees, the vines heavily laden with grapes, and the wild fowl that rose from every bay and creek as the boats passed by."

At Hochelaga, they received a hearty welcome from "a thousand savages, who gathered about them, men, women, and children, receiving them as a parent does a child, showing great joy." This tribe lived by ploughing and fishing, and were not wanderers like those they had met before.

Cartier and his companions were taken to the mountain near the town, and as he looked down on the noble views of river and forest, on the green of the St. Lawrence mingling with the blue of the Ottawa, on the beautiful elms and maples, wearing the golden-crimson tints of the

Canadian autumn, Cartier was inspired to name the spot where he stood "Montreal," the royal mountain.

His return home was delayed by the advent of winter, when the passage of the St. Lawrence is blocked with ice, and so intense was the cold, far exceeding what his men had ever experienced before, that they suffered greatly. With the return of spring, Cartier set out on his homeward journey. This time he sailed to the south of the Gulf, passing the picturesque headlands of Cape Breton, and carried back the joyful news that he had discovered a wonderful country and a great river for his countrymen.

A third time Cartier paid a visit to the land of the West which was awaiting exploration. He built a fort at Cape Rouge (red), where he found some pieces of worthless metal resembling gold. At Quebec also he found some crystals which he thought might be diamonds, and from this circumstance the name of Cape Diamond was given to the bold promontory on which was afterwards built the citadel of Quebec.

As a result of Cartier's visits some traders used every year to make their way to the mouth of the Saguenay to trade in furs with the Indians, but no attempts were made to settle in the land.

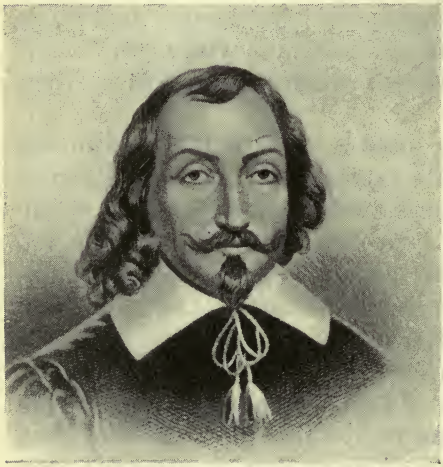
CHAPTER XXXIX.

The Founder of New France.

THOUGH Frenchmen had been attracted across the Atlantic, some for fishing and some for trading in furs, it was not till the time of Samuel Champlain that an attempt was made at a settlement. Champlain was a native of Brouage on the Bay of Biscay, and belonged to a family of fishermen.

In the year that James I of England came to the throne, Champlain, following in the track of Cartier, sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as the island lying off Montreal. Here he found only a few wandering Algonquins along the Ottawa and its tributaries.

Attempting to sail still further up the St. Lawrence, he was stopped by the Lachine rapids, and had to desist from his purpose. Retracing his course, he explored the Saguenay for a considerable distance, thus adding to the information which had been collected by Cartier. He then returned to France.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN,
Founder of New France.

On his next voyage, he tried a fresh field. It may have been the stoppage of the river's navigation during the winter months that induced him to try to explore a settlement farther south, or it may have been that the English were trying to establish themselves at Virginia. At any rate, in the leafy month of June, 1604, Champlain and his associates sailed along the low, covered shores of what is now Nova Scotia, visiting several of its harbours. At that time, this portion of land was called Acadia, and its indentations form excellent harbours. No part of the province is 30 miles from the sea.

The Bay of Fundy, called at first the "French Bay," with its mighty tides washes the western shores, and the change of air produced by its rapid currents rendered its climate most healthy and agreeable. The extreme cold experienced in other parts of Canada is unknown in Nova Scotia, and its territories include scenes of beauty and fertility which cannot be matched in any other of the British dominions. Moreover, it is one of the best fruit-producing countries on the globe. Such was the land to which Champlain now turned his steps on his second voyage.

After exploring the harbours on the east, his company turned into the Bay of Fundy, and, sailing into the roomy basin on which now stands Annapolis, saw with great admiration the grassy meadows, the many streams with their cascades tumbling from the hills, and the forest-clad mountains.

The place was called by Champlain Port Royal, and he described it as the most pleasant place he had yet seen in the country. For three years he remained there, making explorations and surveys, and then left for France.

The action of the French in thus making a settlement in Acadia was not allowed to pass unnoticed in England. In virtue of Cabot's discovery, the English claimed the land, and James I made a grant of it to a friend of his, Sir William Alexander, who named it Nova Scotia. This name was given in honour of the land to which both the King and he himself belonged. But Alexander did not succeed in making any settlements, and in the reign of Charles I the French claim was allowed.

From that time up to the day when it finally passed into British hands by treaty with the French, the land was

called Acadia, and while the English, to the south, were founding the New England States, the French were establishing themselves there.

CHAPTER XL.

The French Fur Trade.

WE have seen something of Champlain's work in Acadia. After his return to New France he devoted himself to discoveries along the St. Lawrence and the routes which opened up from it. Though anxious to get a firm hold on the fur trade for his countrymen, he lived also in hopes of discovering the great western sea which was to form a route to China, for he had no idea that the Continent on which he had secured his foothold stretched 3,000 miles to the west.

As he was now intent on strengthening his hold on the land, he fixed his headquarters at Quebec, and there erected buildings and storehouses. The site had much to recommend it. The Laurentian Mountains, which here approach the river, form an elevated tableland, to the extremity of which the name of Cape Diamond was given. On this height Champlain built a fort, the beginning of the Fort and Castle of St. Louis which has earned for Quebec the title of the Gibraltar of America. Apart from its high rock, Quebec holds a strong position, for the river, after encircling the Isle of Orleans, suddenly grows narrower, till it is less than a mile in width, and this makes the city the "outer gateway" into the land.

Soon after his arrival at Quebec, Champlain was called upon to punish some of his men. They were conspiring to murder him and hand over the post to the French fishermen who frequented Tadousac, at the mouth

of the Saguenay. Champlain emerged safely from this danger, and thus his lot was far happier than that of Henry Hudson, who, three years later, having discovered the great bay which still bears his name, was cast adrift by his men to perish amid the waste of waters.

The possession of a suitable station for the security of the fur trade afforded Champlain an opportunity of turning his attention to further explorations. The following summer he decided to join an expedition which the Algonquin and Huron Indians were planning against the Iroquois.

This expedition had far-reaching results. It not only brought the French into conflict with the bravest of Indians and the most implacable of foes, but it also gave Champlain an insight into the route which led from the region of the Great Lakes to the shores of the Atlantic.

In the month of June, the expedition started up the river which was afterwards called the Richelieu, in honour of the great French statesman of the day. Champlain had, on this occasion, good opportunities of noting Indians on the war-path. Coming to the rapids in the Richelieu, they appealed to the evil spirits to help them against their enemies, and then carried their birch-bark canoes along the "trail" through the woods till they again reached the safe waters of the river.

They reached the beautiful lake which has, since that day, borne Champlain's name. Paddling along its western shores, they came to a point of land which was selected as the site of the fort of Ticonderoga, so celebrated in the later struggle for mastery between the English and the French.

In the subsequent fight with the Indians, Champlain astonished the Iroquois by the shots from his gun which suddenly killed men who "were protected from arrows

by a sort of armour made of strong twigs, and filled with cotton." On their return to the St. Lawrence, the Algonquins gave the French leader an illustration of Indian cruelty towards the captives in their possession, but the recital is too revolting even for words.

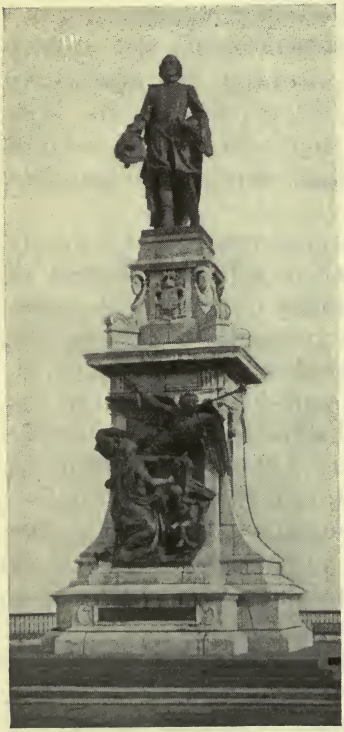


Photo by The International Publications Co.

THE CHAMPLAIN MONUMENT.

The next summer Champlain passed up the St. Lawrence to the island of Mount Royal, where he contemplated the establishment of a post for purposes of trade with the Ottawa Indians.

It was but to be expected that, with his desire for exploration, Champlain should be drawn more and more towards the west. In fact Frenchmen, attracted by the love of adventure, often went with the Indians on their expeditions. Hence arose a class of men who became as well acquainted as the Red Indians themselves with the best hunting-grounds and who were able to persuade distant tribes to bring their wares to the trading posts. Gradually they extended their range, their only means of subsistence being derived from what their traps or rifles could supply, their sole means of travel

the birch-bark canoe, in which they navigated the lakes and rivers that formed the highways into the interior.

CHAPTER XLI.

Further Explorations.

If Quebec was the ideal centre for defence, Montreal was the ideal centre for commerce. Nature herself had apparently desired to direct attention north and south of the river at this point, for just above Montreal are the rapids in the bed of the St. Lawrence which had prevented Cartier from pursuing his way further up the stream.

On the other hand, just south of Montreal the Richelieu flowed into the main stream, and, as we have seen, Champlain explored this route, as far as the lake called by his name. Along the same line flowed the river Hudson to the site where New York now stands. As the reader will probably have guessed, the Hudson river was discovered by the explorer who afterwards met his fate in the great Hudson Bay.

On its north bank near Montreal, the St. Lawrence was fed by the Ottawa, upon whose banks the Ottawas dwelt.

It will probably have struck the reader how the various expeditions were timed to take place in the summer, for the deep snow of winter which threw its mantle over the earth for several months, though it did not prevent travelling, freely disclosed to observers all the movements of the travellers.

During the winter months, Champlain used to seize his opportunities and return to France. On one such occasion in the winter of 1612, he was shown at Paris a

map which gave him some conception of the sea which Hudson had discovered on the north.

This was sufficient to revive his slumbering wish to find the western or northern sea which would open out a route to China, and, on his return to Canada in the spring, he vowed that he would not desist from his purpose till he had found it. Accordingly he formed a party to accompany him to the Upper Ottawa, and ascended the river, with its numerous lakes, cataracts and islets.

We may quote the words of a former Governor-General of Canada with regard to this river : " To an Englishman or a Frenchman, the Severn and the Thames, the Seine and the Rhone appear considerable streams, but in the Ottawa, a mere feeder of the St. Lawrence, we have a river nearly 550 miles long, and three or four times as big as any of them."

Champlain saw the beautiful falls to which he gave the French name, Rideau, because of their striking resemblance to a white " curtain," and this name has since been transferred to the canal which runs from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to the Ottawa. When on the Upper Ottawa, Champlain learned from the Algonquin Indians that there was " no salt-water sea " along that route, and, having erected a cedar cross showing the arms of France, he retraced his steps.

In the following year, he agreed to help the Algonquins once more against the Iroquois, whose territory it was proposed to reach by a detour. After ascending the upper Ottawa, they paddled down the Ottawa to the lake of the Nipissings, the Indians who were dreaded by the other tribes as sorcerers. Passing down the French river, they reached the great freshwater sea now named Lake Huron, after the unfortunate folk who once made their home in that region.

By the beginning of October the expedition reached the eastern end of Lake Ontario and prepared to attack the Iroquois. This was the season of the year when the trees wear their brightest foliage, when the Indians were in the habit of making their last raids, and which therefore, earned the name of the "Indian summer."

We now leave Champlain and his expedition against the Iroquois, only remarking that he was laying up trouble in store for his countrymen, for the Hurons were a race who "never forgot and never forgave."

One of Champlain's last works was to establish a fort at the mouth of the St. Maurice, as a bulwark against the people whom he had baited. This fort was the foundation of the present city of Three Rivers.

CHAPTER XLII.

Canada's Waterways and Forests.

In selecting suitable emblems for its "coat of arms" the Dominion of Canada has adopted the beaver and the maple tree, and these will serve as apt illustrations of the land which is specially distinguished for its wonderful waterways and its wonderful forests.

As we might expect, this land of wood and water left unmistakable marks on its early inhabitants, who from their bronze skins are usually known as "Red Indians." These Indians have always been marked off in tribes, and these tribes have often gained their names from the rivers on which they have settled. Thus, there were tribes of the great Algonquin race who were known as the Ottawas, the Delawares, and the Shawnees, the last deriving their name from their abode on the Savannah, which gave them, first, the title of Savanees, and then, Shawnees.

The story of Canada will serve to show the importance of river valleys, not only to the white men, but also to the Indians, who, before they adopted any settled mode of life, found the rivers their only means of ready communication.

Their journeys were aided by their birch-bark canoes, and the usefulness of these can be measured by the fact that the white man has never invented anything to equal them for the purpose for which they were intended. The bark of the birch is so tough that it resembles leather. It was sewn together sheet by sheet, and its seams were made watertight by a coating of gum obtained from any cone-bearing tree.

The lightness of the canoes secured their easy running, and the smaller ones could be readily carried by one man, so that at river falls, or along the distances between neighbouring lakes, they could be transported on the backs of the travellers.

Equally important was the ease with which they could be repaired, for the materials of which they were built were always at hand wherever an accident might befall them.

The waterways were useful, not only as a ready means of communication, but for the provision of food, and the Red Indians showed considerable skill in the way they were able to dam up the rivers for the purpose of catching fish.

But they were children of the woods as well as of the streams, and no people have ever developed greater intelligence in following up the "trail" and in noting the movement of every branch and twig.

The tree which gave them their boats gave them also much besides. It served to make their wigwams, and their furniture. Its fibres provided them with



A RED INDIAN CHIEF.

ropes and mats, and, if need arose, the scrapings of the bark would sustain life when maize, acorns, and roots failed.

The Red Indians play an important part in the conquest of North America by the white men, and remind us how India itself came into British hands largely through the efforts of the natives who were willing to fight for the foreigners.

Occupying the land along the borders of the Great Lakes, and extending to the lowlands of the lower Mississippi, was the race known as the Algonquins, the best-known tribes of which were the Ottawas, the Blackfeet, the Delawares, the Mohicans, the Chippeways, and the Shawnees. The Algonquin traditions warrant the belief that their original home was in the north-east region beyond the Great Lakes, and that they had been driven thence by the members of the Iroquois race. They appear to have proceeded southwards by two separate branches, one keeping to the sea-coast, the other following the line of the Mississippi, and this is interesting because it illustrates the main lines of exploration which were afterwards followed by the white men.

But the Algonquins, although they clung to homes by the water-side, were not wholly fishermen. At an early stage, they had taken to a more settled mode of life, and devoted themselves to agriculture. Nay, more, they achieved something quite in advance of the other races of North America, in that they had learned how to select and work copper.

It is true that this metal occurs in such purity between Lake Superior and Lake Michigan that, in the best specimens, it can be shaped by hammering even in the cold state. But there is reason to believe that the Algonquins had discovered a simple way of smelting

and welding, by means of which they made beads and plates.

The race that best accords with the ideas of the blood-thirsty Red Indians, as conceived by Europeans, was the Iroquois, with their tribes, the Mohawks, the Onondagas, the Eries and the Cherokees. In the main, these were a race of hunters, and in war pursued their human game with the same cruelty and ruthlessness as they followed up the animals in the chase.

Their position lay along the Hudson River, between the Great Lakes and the sea, so it would appear that they recognized the value of the route which became all-important to the English and French, when their colonies developed respectively on the Atlantic seaboard and the basin of the Great Lakes.

A large branch of the Algonquins was that of the Hurons, who expanded in a westerly direction along the south bank of the river St. Lawrence. There were constant feuds between the Iroquois and the Hurons, and the latter, on account of their peaceful nature, were forced to retreat further and further in front of their ruthless foes. The Hurons cultivated maize, pumpkins and tobacco, while the sunflower was raised principally for the oil, with which they greased their hair and bodies. Their name means "Shock-heads," for the French exclaimed when they first saw them, "*Quelles hures !*" that is, "What heads of hair !"

CHAPTER XLIII.

The Missions.

THE next stage in the march westward must be taken in conjunction with the mission of the Jesuits, who devoted themselves with great zeal and patience to the conversion

of the Algonquins and Hurons. And here notice should be taken of the work performed by missionaries in the establishment of most of the colonies of the nations of Western Europe. Equally with the traders they have been foremost in carrying into new lands the flags of Empire.

Shortly after the death of Champlain, the Jesuits arrived at the island opposite the height which had been named by Cartier, Montreal. As yet there was no town, but an altar was built on the island, and Father Vimont, who celebrated mass on the occasion, foreshadowed the success of the Roman Catholic Church in the land.

His words were really prophetic, for the town, which began to spring up on the site, and was known as Ville-Marie, was marked by the foundation of convents and hospitals. Here was established the parent branch of the Congregation of Notre-Dame, whose schools now extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific Coast.

The Iroquois, who were now able to procure from the Dutch at Fort Orange and New Amsterdam on the Hudson River the weapons in use among the English and French, were constantly prowling around the white settlements, and lurking in the woods to cut off the unwary, and only those who were within the defences at Quebec might consider themselves really safe.

Yet, in spite of the risks they ran, the priests extended their mission stations as far as the shores of Lake Superior. The station of Sainte Marie was built near to the spot where the waters of Lake Superior descend into Lake Huron, and the name is still recalled to us in the falls known as the Sault Ste. Marie, that is, the "leap" or falls of St. Mary. Near by was the mission of St. Joseph, and the Isle of St. Joseph still serves to recall this.

Possibly the success of the priests among the Hurons

maddened the Iroquois, who attacked them in the absence of their warriors, and from village after village arose the shrieks of the helpless men, women, and children, who were tortured with lingering deaths.

Such was the undying hatred of the Iroquois that the Hurons resolved to scatter and seek homes elsewhere. Even the Isle of St. Joseph did not afford them sufficient protection, and some decided to shelter themselves under the guns of Quebec, while others travelled to the upper waters of the Mississippi, so that out of the powerful people, which once numbered 20,000, only a bare remnant remains on the Detroit in the angle between Lake Huron and Lake Erie.

The French government at last decided to come to the assistance of the colony, and New France was made into a royal province. The fortifications at Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal were strengthened, and four new forts were built along the line leading from Richelieu to Lake Champlain. The Mohawk villages were destroyed, and this had the effect of quieting, for a time, these formidable foes of the French.

CHAPTER XLIV.

The English Fur Traders.

About the year 1667, Prince Rupert, the gallant soldier who had striven so hard to assist his uncle Charles I in the Great Civil War, was rummaging among the dusty books of the Temple Library in London, when he came across an account of Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveller, who, in 1282, had seen in the tent of the Grand Khan of Tartary furs and sables which had been brought from the North.

Rupert argued within himself that the same source

which had supplied the Khan should still be at the disposal of the English. His ideas were confirmed by a Frenchman who visited him about the same time, and who was acquainted with the Indian tribes whose wanderings took them near the shores of Hudson Bay.

The result was the association of noblemen and gentlemen in a company called the "Merchant Adventurers trading with Hudson Bay." Charles II, Rupert's cousin, conferred on them a charter, which allowed them the sole right of trading on the borders of all the streams which enter Hudson Bay. We have a reminder of the age of the formation of this company in the names around the Bay. James Bay carries the name of James II, who before his accession was Duke of York and Albany. York Factory and Fort Albany continue his titles.



MARCO POLO.

The position of the various "forts" at the mouths of rivers reminds us of the earliest lines of communication, before roads were formed, and centuries before railways were constructed. Though the French resented the intrusion of the English into the trade which was providing them with great wealth, yet such was the vastness

of the land that there was no need for either to get into conflict with the other. The French were working along the line of the Great Lakes, the English company along the lands draining into Hudson Bay in accordance with the terms of their charter, and the present provinces of Keewatin and Manitoba were included in what was known as Rupertsland.

By the time the French fur traders had extended their posts as far as Lake Winnipeg, and thus rendered likely a conflict between the traders of the two nations, the wars between the English and the French had begun which ended in the removal of the fleur-de-lis from the old fort of the Canadian capital.

Under the change of rulers, a new company was formed, called the "North-West Company of Montreal," and a rivalry was at once established between the companies. This was rendered all the keener because, while the servants of the Hudson Bay Company were mostly Scots and English, the North-West Company employed the French-Canadians, who it was believed were most suitable for a forest life.

The name North-West given to the Company suggests a peculiarity of the forest regions of Canada, which depends on local circumstances. The northerly winds which prevail throughout the summer months in Baffin Bay and Davis Strait and fill the archipelago on the north with ice are the cause of the low temperature on the shores of Hudson Bay and the consequent lack of timber.

On the other hand, the southerly summer winds of the Mackenzie valley help to extend the forests in that region almost to the very shores of the Arctic Ocean. Alberta and Saskatchewan have a good supply of trees owing to the prevalence of the warm westerly winds,

while Keewatin, the land "at the back of the north wind," has little good timber.

It was a servant in the employ of the North-West Company who discovered and followed to its mouth the Mackenzie River which rightly bears his name. The explorations and searches for furs of the companies were gradually extended to the west of the Rocky mountains. The river Fraser bears the name of another servant of the North-West Company who discovered it.

Along the lines of all the great rivers, and especially at the points where they receive the waters of their tributaries, the forts of the rival companies can still be traced, and their situations will suggest to us their solitude, which was relieved only by the visits of the Indian trappers and the "trains" of dogs bringing supplies from Hudson Bay.

Such names as Fort Enterprise, Fort Providence, Fort Good Hope, and Fort Resolution, can easily be made to speak of the courage, the endurance, and the determination of the early pioneers.

CHAPTER XLV.

From the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico.

THE most wonderful system of freshwater lakes in the world is to be found in Canada, and these combine to form one great mediterranean sea. Their importance can be measured partly by the great cities to be found on their shores, and which are situated on the many routes Nature has provided thereto.

One route came from the Hudson River along by Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River. Another, branching from the Hudson River route, passed along the Mohawk Valley and led to the land around Lake Ontario. On the

north-eastern shore of Lake Ontario was built a fort named Frontenac in honour of the Governor, but now known as Kingston, and its military importance is still shown by its present-day fortifications.

It is noteworthy how the spirit of forest life had entered into the French when they settled in Canada. The English, on the other hand, never found sufficient charm in the life of the wood and the stream to adopt the habits of the Indians, and consequently the English were never on such good terms with the Indians as were the French.

From the pages of history have disappeared most of those courageous souls who, despising danger in whatever form it came, wandered over the rivers and lakes, "blazing" their way through the forest for the benefit of those who came after; but one name has been handed down to us, in the town at the head of Lake Superior, the name of Duluth, who was a sort of Canadian Robin Hood.

The destruction of the Mohawk villages quietened for a time the Indians who were the most persistent foes of the French, and made it possible for men to pursue their explorations around the mighty water basins.

We have already seen how the fur traders found their way to the Mackenzie River in the North, but, long before they had made their way thither, French settlers had discovered a still mightier river which afforded an outlet from the Great Lakes to the South.

The watershed between this river and the basin of the Great Lakes is so slight that it would not be a difficult task to divert the water from the one to the other. Jolliet, a man interested in the fur trade, and Father Marquette, who was concerned in the conversion of the Indians, decided to set out on a journey in the spring of 1673, to try to find the "great water" or Mississippi, about which stories were constantly reaching the traders' ears.

Jolliet and Marquette reached the "low divide," where they found the Fox River flowing peacefully to the great reservoirs of the St. Lawrence, while the Wisconsin carried its waters in another direction where they expected to meet the "mighty river."

Launching their canoes on the Wisconsin, they found themselves a month after leaving St. Ignace, on the rapid current of a river. This they recognised as the object of their search. Passing along its waters, they reached its junction with the Missouri, and struggled through the thick mud which has given it its name.

They sailed by the junction with the Ohio, and came to the confluence with the Arkansas. Here they decided to return home; but when they reached the Illinois River, they agreed to take to that stream instead of retracing their course along the Mississippi. Thus they reached the "portage" by Chicago, where they crossed to the south-west shores of Lake Michigan.

It was left for La Salle to follow the Mississippi to its mouth. To assist him in this work, he was granted Fort Frontenac (Kingston), whence he explored the valley of the Ohio. The point where he joined the Mississippi is not known, but with two companions he persevered in following its course till at last he sailed through the delta, and came to the Gulf of Mexico. As a reward for his services, he was allowed to found colonies in Louisiana, the name given to the land at the mouth of the Mississippi.

CHAPTER XLVI.

The Fight for Supremacy (Part I).

THE discoveries of the French along the lines of the Great Lakes, and along the valley of the Mississippi gave

France a claim to an immense domain which stretched from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to an indefinite region beyond the Great Lakes, and southwards from those inland seas as far as the Gulf of Mexico.

The English, true to their love of the sea, had kept themselves to the Atlantic sea-border and to the region which had as its background the Alleghany Mountains. Towards the middle of the eighteenth century, it began to dawn on them that they had been outwitted by their enemies, who were surrounding them on all sides except the sea, and thus when the time for expansion might come, they would be unable to reap any of the commercial advantages which the continent afforded.

Yet the English cause was not as hopeless as at first sight it seemed. Their territories, if small, were compact, and they had the advantage of being on the "inner lines" so that the French had to distribute their defences over a wide area.

The very greatness of the French possessions added greatly to the difficulty of retaining them, especially at a time when the "right of might" was the one which had the largest number of adherents.

> "The good old rule, the simple plan,
> That he should take who has the power,
> And he should keep who can."

A still greater advantage to the English lay in the fact that between them and the French were posted the fiercest of Indian tribes, the Mohawks and the Foxes, who were always ready, on the slightest excuse, to harass the French settlers.

There was one district from which the French might, on some future occasion, work great mischief to the New England States, and that was in the province of Acadia,

which had no boundaries to mark it off from the New England States. In the war of the Spanish Succession, therefore, the English colonists seized their opportunity to advance against Port Royal on the Bay of Fundy and take it. In honour of the reigning Queen its name was then changed to Annapolis (Anne's city).

On the continent of Europe, Marlborough's victories at Blenheim and other places ensured good terms for the English; and the Treaty of Utrecht, at the conclusion of peace, handed over to the English Acadia and Newfoundland, thus "rounding off" the English possessions on the south of the St. Lawrence. The French, however, reserved for themselves certain fishing rights on the Banks of Newfoundland, a reservation which is eloquent testimony to their value. They retained, also, in their possession the island of Cape Breton to safeguard the entrance into the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Almost immediately, they began to rear, on the island of Cape Breton, a fort which they called Louisbourg. No expense was spared for its erection, and the fort itself was constructed under the superintendence of the greatest masters of engineering science.

The English, realizing the danger to which they were exposed, began to raise forts at Halifax, a place which, by reason of its magnificent harbour, has continued to increase in importance up to the present day. Another fort was also erected to guard the isthmus of Chignecto, where the peninsula of Nova Scotia is joined to the mainland, and this was called Fort Lawrence in honour of the English officer who built it.

The French colonists of Acadia were willing to assist their countrymen in the building of Louisbourg, but refused Lawrence all assistance in the building of his fort. This was sufficient indication of the danger that

still existed in Acadia, and the people of New England declared they would never be able to enjoy security unless the Acadians were required to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain.

As this might have meant the bearing of arms against men of their own nationality, the Acadians refused to take the oath, and, in the end, men, women, and children were driven from their pleasant homes by the side of the beautiful bays and rivers of Nova Scotia, and scattered among the colonies where the English were in the ascendency.

CHAPTER XLVII.

The Fight for Supremacy (Part II).

THE line of the French dominions, though extensive, was well provided by Nature with different positions of defence. Especially useful were the junctions between the various lakes, and the French stations at these places served, at one and the same time, as military forts, trading posts, and centres of missionary enterprise.

The route from New York to the French possessions, as we have seen, passed first along the valley of the Hudson, and then branched off in two different directions. One passed along the valley of the Mohawk to the tongue of land lying between Lakes Erie and Ontario. At the head of this route the English built the Fort of Oswego, and the French on their side built the Fort of Niagara as the " Key of the West."

The name Niagara suggests the celebrated falls which occur between Erie and Ontario, and these falls are an infinitely more effective bar to communication by water than any fort erected by man on the land could possibly be.

To control the trade with the Indians who made their

way to the English fort of Oswego, the French built, on the north-west of Lake Ontario, a fort where now stands the town of Toronto. Previously, as we have noticed, the road between Ottawa and this point had been protected by Fort Frontenac, the modern Kingston.

On the same line of route, the tongue of land between Lake St. Clair and Lake Erie was defended by a fort



QUEBEC FROM POINT LEVIS.

at Detroit, a French name meaning a "strait." The apex of the triangle of land between Lake Superior and Lake Michigan was provided with a fort at Sault Ste. Marie.

But the French had devoted most of their skill to the defences of the approach to Lake Champlain, the second of the routes which branched from New York. After passing Lake Champlain, this road lay alongside another lake, which had been named by a Jesuit priest the Lac du Saint Sacrement (the lake of the Holy Sacrament)

because he had reached it on the eve of the feast of Corpus Christi. This lake is now called Lake George, having been re-named in honour of King George II of England.

On the Richelieu near Lake Champlain, the French established the Fort St. John. We may here notice how frequently the French, in Canada, used the name of this saint. It is used for the capital of Newfoundland, and the capital of New Brunswick. It was once the name given to the island now known as Prince Edward Isle, and the French Canadian is still often called Jean Baptiste.

Towards the south of Lake Champlain was built the Fort of Crown Point, and at the head of Lake Sacrament was placed Fort Ticonderoga. This was the most advanced post of the French along this route, and on the south of Lake Sacrament the English built their most advanced post at Fort William Henry.

The valley of the Ohio led to the same angle between the Great Lakes and the New England States, and the English, realizing the importance of keeping open their communications along the Ohio Valley, tried to construct a fort at one of the forks of the river. They were, however, driven off by the French, who completed the fort and named it Fort Duquesne in honour of the Canadian Governor of that day. It is now called Pittsburg in memory of the great Pitt, and the story which is contained in the change from Fort Duquesne to Pittsburg will form the subject of another chapter.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

The Fight for Supremacy (Part III).

In 1756, there broke out between the English and the French the war which is known as the Seven Years'

War, a war which ended in England driving France out of her possessions in both the eastern and the western hemispheres. Yet the war which had such a successful issue opened for England under the blackest of clouds. Canada at the time was in charge of Montcalm, one of the ablest soldiers France has ever possessed, and, on the outbreak of war, Montcalm, who realized the importance of striking at once, and striking hard, attacked and destroyed Fort Oswego, which, as we have seen, threatened the French position at Niagara.



MARQUIS DE MONTCALM,

defeated and killed by Wolfe at the fall of Quebec, 1759.

This was bad enough, but worse was in store. An English Admiral, with fifteen ships of the line and three frigates, was sent against Louisbourg, but his delay at Halifax allowed the French to rush reinforcements of ships and men into the fort, so that the English Admiral in the end decided that there was nothing but risk in attacking the position.

Such was the condition of affairs when Pitt was called upon to take the helm of State, and it was mainly through

the confidence which he inspired everywhere that Britain emerged triumphantly from the crisis in which she found herself.

Nowhere did Pitt's good sense show itself more than in his choice of leaders for the work which he had in hand. In 1758 the plan of campaign included three expeditions, which were to be set on foot at the same time. The first was directed against the French in the valley of the Ohio, and particularly against Fort Duquesne. The second was to advance along the route of Lake Champlain having Montreal as its ultimate aim. The third was to attack Louisbourg which was acknowledged to be the "key" to the St. Lawrence.

In the Ohio valley, the French did not hold their ground, and Fort Duquesne was abandoned to the English, who re-named it Pittsburg in honour of Pitt. A blow equally severe was the capture by the English of Fort Frontenac, an event "of greater injury to the colony than the loss of a battle."

The expedition which advanced along the banks of Lake Champlain was unsuccessful, and the General, who had rashly thrown his men against formidable entrenchments of fallen trees with their sharp ends outwards, was replaced by the cautious Lord Amherst.

But most gratifying of all was the capture of Louisbourg, and the "eleven stands of colours won at this gateway of Canada were deposited in St. Paul's Cathedral amid the most fervent rejoicings."

Four years later, the fortress was levelled to the ground, and now only a few mounds mark the site of the place on which all the hopes of France were once centred.

The year following the capture of Louisbourg, saw even greater successes. The advance of Amherst along

the Lake Champlain route placed Montreal in peril, and Montcalm had to detach a part of his forces from Quebec to strengthen the defences there.

Soon General Wolfe appeared with his fleet before Quebec, bringing with him the regiments which had done such yeoman service before Louisbourg. The task of getting to close quarters Wolfe found impossible, and the siege of the town dragged out between June 26th and September 12th; but on the latter date Wolfe was able to pierce the defences of the "Gibraltar of America" by climbing the Heights of Abraham, and with the death of Montcalm France had to abandon all hope of saving her Empire in the West.

In 1763, the Treaty of Paris was arranged between the conflicting parties, by which France ceded to Great Britain Canada with all its dependencies, the island of Cape Breton and the Laurentian Isles. Thus, out of the great empire which France once owned in North America, there remained to her "only a few acres of rock constantly enveloped in fog on the southern coast of Newfoundland."

CHAPTER XLIX.

Canada in the Making.

WHILE on one side of the Atlantic the French were being deprived of their possessions in Canada, on the opposite side of the ocean men were being forced to seek for new homes outside the British Isles. After the rebellion of 1745, a complete change came over the Highlands of Scotland. The power of the different clans disappeared, and the various clansmen had to look out for fresh walks of life. Just as the servants and dependents of the monks were thrown on the world when the monasteries were destroyed, so the Highlanders lost their

means of livelihood when their chiefs had to take up sheep-farming instead of subsisting on the results of war and pillage.

But, whereas the retainers of the old monasteries had, in many cases, to beg their bread, the development of the British Empire had now opened for the clansmen avenues of employment in America, and thither thousands of Highlanders directed their steps.

It is true that they were not at first promising settlers. Under the old order of things in Scotland, they had grown up with the idea that work was degrading. Their herds of ill-favoured cattle had roamed at large, and picked up their own living ; their women had been forced to undertake the sowing of the corn and the gathering-in of the stunted crops.

Yet the new surroundings in Canada changed their outlook. They began to shake off their dislike to industry, and became successful farmers. The change that came over them can be seen by comparing the poor crofter of to-day living in the Western Highlands with the wealthy farmers of Nova Scotia, and of Glengarry in Ontario, the descendants of those who ventured out into the New World.

But we must be careful to distinguish between these Highlanders and the Lowlanders who went out nearly a century later, and who have contributed so much to the building up of the British colonies in all quarters of the world.

The Highlanders, in the eighteenth century, found their way to the New England colonies and to Canada. Lord Selkirk planted a considerable number in Prince Edward Island. But this number was small compared with the thousands that settled in Nova Scotia and Canada.

Those who went to the New England colonies soon had cause to change their minds. In the Seven Years' War the French had been driven out of Canada, and after that there was not the same need for the colonists on the Atlantic seaboard to remain attached to the Mother Land. They threw off their dependence, through the assistance of France. Nearly all the Highlanders who had settled in the New England colonies fought on the side of the Crown, and on the declaration of their independence decided to remove to Canada.

Nor were they alone. Many of the older New England colonists remained loyal to the old country even at the cost of much loss and persecution, and these were at one with the Highlanders in wishing to be in a land under the "old flag."

The British Government, as a reward for their loyalty and as compensation for their sacrifices, offered them valuable tracts of land in the neighbouring colonies.

Some decided to go to the Bahamas, some to Nova Scotia, others chose the undeveloped lands of Ontario or New Brunswick, the latter name showing their devotion to the Royal family, known as the House of Hanover or Brunswick.

CHAPTER L.

The Maritime Provinces.

THE persons who forsook the New England colonies because of their attachment to Britain are usually known as the "United Empire Loyalists," and at the present day three out of every four men met with in Nova Scotia are descended either from these loyalists or from the Highlanders of whom we were speaking.

It will be remembered that the Bay of Fundy was

called at first French Bay, and this helps to form the western coast of Nova Scotia. It is a marshy coast, and so was most fittingly occupied by Frenchmen from the Western district of the Loire—men who knew how to cultivate salt marshes and to construct dykes where necessary.

They preferred the less toilsome labour of banking and dyking to the clearing of forests by the axe, but the Highlanders who came later as settlers took most readily to the work of lumbering. Nova Scotia still possesses a large area of woodland, though it is small in comparison with that found in Quebec and Ontario. Over most of the land the marks of former forests still remain. There are patches of wood on nearly every farm. The fences are mainly timber rails, and the stumps of forest trees can be clearly traced.

Yet, though Nova Scotia and the two Canadas are alike in their wealth of wood, the land of the former is poorer than that of the latter, and the climate, though somewhat milder, is more subject to fogs.

To make up for these drawbacks, Nova Scotia has the advantage of an extended sea-coast. Fishing and ship-building can always be combined with farming, and the "fishing farmers" of the province form an important class. Lumbering is still an important industry, though with the advent of steam-vessels the demand for masts for the ships of the British Navy has decreased.

Nova Scotians are especially proud of the fact that they possess the greatest proportion of United Empire Loyalist blood. From being "true blues" they were long ago dubbed by the Yankees "blue noses."

The other Canadian provinces which benefited by the Loyalist emigrants were New Brunswick and Ontario.

New Brunswick resembles Nova Scotia in most of its features, though it is more mountainous, and its original settlers, instead of fixing their homes on the sea-shore, had to push their way up the river valleys.

Its large, uncleared forests contain big game and many well-stocked salmon rivers, so that while Nova Scotia attracts many American families in search of a seaside holiday, New Brunswick is the delight of the wealthy sportsman who wishes to track the deer or to fish in its rivers.

At the time when Britain's loyal sons spurned the rule of the independent colonists, both New Brunswick and Ontario were covered with primaeval forests, and the settlers had to undertake the earliest pioneer work—hard axe-work, with years of slow progress and years of waiting, trusting to the future to bring reward and opportunity for leisure.

The name of "backwoodsman" still lingers to remind us of the privations of these early settlers, living in their rough, log-built huts beside rivers and lakes where luxuries were unheard of.

But man's extremities are often his greatest opportunities. The pioneers, at first, had to sustain themselves on the roots of trees, the wild fowl of the woods and the fish of the rivers. But as a result of their labours the land became like the maple tree, ready to yield its sweetness to those who know how to obtain it.

Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Ontario, from their invigorating climate, produce healthy men and women. The first two provinces are near the sea, while Ontario has the advantage of a position near the Great Lakes, the largest bodies of fresh water in the world. These temper the heat in summer and the cold in winter, so that in its southern clearings, apples, pears, plums, peaches,

grapes, melons, and tomatoes can be most successfully cultivated.

Just as the land was made to yield its fruits in increase, so it was found that even the severities of the climate could be turned into blessings. In winter, owing to the dryness of the air, snow became as welcome as the flowers in spring or the glorious tints in autumn, for this winter's snow gave means of communication in all directions, whereas, at other times, the paths were limited to the lines of the streams.

The name of the town of Kingston, which grew up on the shores of Lake Ontario, will serve to remind us of the circumstances under which the district was first settled.

CHAPTER LI.

Union of the Two Canadas.

THE news that there were rich lands in Canada awaiting occupation spread abroad almost before the Loyalists had carved out homesteads for themselves. Moreover, the lands near the shores of Lake Ontario were not only rich, but in a good position for trade, and soon the waters of the Lake were dotted with sails indicating the commerce that was passing between the peoples on either side.

The settlers in the New England States at once seized the opening afforded them of improving their position, and poured over the border in their thousands, much to the alarm of the United Empire Loyalists, who doubted the loyalty of the new-comers.

The British did not come from their native islands in any numbers. Britain, at this time, needed all her sons for the wars which were of such frequent occurrence, and there had not arisen any of those conditions which later

drove people to seek new homes. It was, therefore, a time of considerable anxiety for the United Empire Loyalists when the wars with Napoleon were being fought.

As we saw in the case of India, the military zeal of the French Revolution became the opportunity of trying to regain for France her lost possessions. Efforts were made to stir up the people of Quebec by "their brothers the French of France," but with little result. Far more serious was the crisis which arose when the United States declared war against Britain in 1812.

The latter was in the midst of her life-and-death struggle with Napoleon, and it seemed to the men of the middle and southern American States that the capture of Canada would be a simple matter, but the unexpected happened. The New England colonists, who were the neighbours of Lower Canada, took no part in the war, and the new settlers in Ontario and Nova Scotia, who had recently come from the States, did not lift a finger in support of the invaders. The French-Canadians rallied to the support of the Government, and the result was a big surprise for the States.

They suffered greatly through the destruction of their over-sea trade, so that they were glad to secure a peace in 1815 which left matters roughly in the same condition as they were before the war.

The year 1815 marked the conclusion of peace in Europe as well as in America, and opened out a new era for Canada. Men who had been retained in Britain for the necessities of the war were free to go over the sea; nay, their occupation being gone, they were forced abroad. Many of the disbanded soldiers were awarded grants of land in Canada, mostly in the Upper Province, that is, Ontario.

It happened also that this was the time when machinery

was displacing large numbers of workers, and many of these found rich openings across the Atlantic.

Now, in the war with the Americans, the brunt of the fighting had fallen on the United Loyalists, who came to regard the province as their own special property. When the agitation in England for Parliamentary reform followed, the ill-feeling between the old and the new settlers in Upper Canada was intensified, and the discontent among the violent French-Canadians in Lower Canada resulted in a rebellion. It was felt that the time had come when there should be a Union between the two provinces. An Act was passed in 1842 to effect this. It proved to be a wise step, and paved the way for a union or "federation" of all the British North American Provinces, of which we shall hear more in the next chapter.

One result of the union of the two Canadas was the construction of the Grand Trunk Railway, which connected Toronto and Montreal, and was then continued from Montreal to the Atlantic Coast.

CHAPTER LII.

Birth of the Dominion of Canada.

THE history of the nations of the world teaches above all the lesson that "union is strength." As we have already seen, the two Canadas were united in 1842, but this was but a step on the road to further union.

Canada stands alone among the nations of the world in the way its provinces are arranged along a narrow band of territory. It is a strip of land prevented from extending outwards on the north by a frozen zone, and presents a curious contrast to Australia, which is a belt of coast land precluded from widening inwards into the heart of the continent by the presence of parched and sandy soil.

The southern boundary of Canada everywhere adjoins the territory of the United States, and when civil war was raging between the Northern and the Southern States, from 1861 to 1865, a sense of insecurity was felt by the Canadians in case the enmity of the States should be turned against them. The Northern States were displaying bitterness towards Britain, because of some sympathy that had been shown towards the South, while the Southern States had never been very friendly to Canada.

It is true that Ontario and Quebec were united, but outside the union stood Newfoundland, the barrier between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the outer Atlantic; while Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, also outside the union, were specially open to invasion. In the days before steam was used for travelling, it was impossible to secure union between provinces which were separated by long distances, but, at the time of the outbreak of the American Civil War, steamships were already crossing the Atlantic and had been placed on all the lakes and rivers. Thus the first step towards federation, or a closer fellowship, was provided.

The idea of a closer union was welcomed in England. To those who were dreaming of a closer tie between the various units of the Empire, the plan was particularly welcome; to others it was acceptable as a solution of former difficulties. In 1867 the British North America Act joined the federation provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia under the title of "The Dominion of Canada."

Careful thought had then to be given to the choice of a capital. First, as it was important to fix it in a secure situation, it was undesirable to consider a town on the seaboard. Next, as there was considerable rivalry between the provinces of Quebec and Ontario, it was

not wise to give either of these the preference. For the same reason both Montreal and Quebec, which were the natural capitals, were passed over.

In the end, for the convenience of the majority, it was decided to choose a site on the river Ottawa, which divides the two provinces of Quebec and Ontario, and to avoid all jealousies between the existing important towns, it was decided to fix on the town of Ottawa, which had up to that time been obscure and of no account.

In 1870 the North-West Territories, under the name of Manitoba, joined the Dominion, to be followed a year later by British Columbia. In 1873 Prince Edward Island followed the lead of the other provinces, leaving Newfoundland as the only outstanding member, and this is the position at the present day. Canadian Federation has fulfilled all that was expected of it, and it has since been taken as a model for the states of Australia and South Africa.

CHAPTER LIII.

Manitoba (Part I).

THE inhabited Canadian land, which extends from the shores of the Atlantic to those of the Pacific, may be likened to a huge arch designed to span the whole Continent of North America. The keystone of this mighty arch is formed by the province of Manitoba, and in character, as well as in position, it is quite distinct from the provinces which support it.

The east or oldest portion of the arch was once covered with a continuous forest, out of which every homestead was hewn by the stroke of the axe. It is still a land of trees and tangled undergrowth, giving to the settler the feeling of limitation and restraint.

The west of the arch is occupied by British Columbia, a wondrous region of hill country clothed with gloomy forests of tapering spruce and pine; but Manitoba is a land of plain and prairie, a land of rolling undulations and vast seas of waving grass, spangled with flowers.

Compared with the districts on either side of it, with their lakes, their forests, and their hills, the scenery of Manitoba is monotonous, though it has its own special beauty. The traveller, on emerging from the forest regions on either side, where he has gained the feeling of restraint, becomes conscious of vastness and freedom as he gazes on the expanse which stretches out on all sides to the horizon.

The Canadians who were familiar with the provinces that hug the Atlantic seaboard and the river St. Lawrence, were conscious of the possession of provinces equal in size to ordinary European kingdoms. But from the prairie they first gained the true idea of Canada as a semi-continent.

As one approaches Winnipeg, the gateway of the prairie country from the east, one feels the change from forest land to meadow land to be almost abrupt. The Lake of the Woods, one of the most beautiful and romantic of Canadian lakes and a real paradise for sportsmen, is a near neighbour of Lake Winnipeg, the commencement of the prairies.

Between Manitoba and Hudson Bay is the land of Keewatin, a picturesque name given by the Indians to the region, meaning, "the North Wind coming back."

Manitoba is the most desirable wheat-growing district in the world. Its air is so dry that no interval is necessary between the cutting of the corn and its storage in barns. Moreover, the land needed no clearing. While the settlers in the forest regions of Canada had to spend



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AN ABUNDANT HARVEST.

months, and even years, in preparation for their crops, the prairie pioneers were able to start reaping their harvests with hardly any preliminary operations.

Such, also, was the fertility of the soil, that crop after crop could be raised from it without any apparent loss in its fertility. The knowledge that there were these rich fields awaiting occupation gave Canada, in the early seventies, a fresh set-off along the path of development.

CHAPTER LIV.

Manitoba (Part II).

THE question at once arises: Why did such rich tracts remain so long outside the notice of mankind? Up to 1869 they had hardly any settled inhabitants. The wandering Indians were at times visited for purposes of trade by the hunters and trappers of the Hudson Bay Company, and the solitary trading-posts were often the head-quarters of the priest or missionary.

But the Hudson Bay Company, jealous for its fur trade, tried to keep secret all knowledge of the land. It maintained fortified posts on the shores of Hudson Bay, and encouraged the drawing of commerce to these forts rather than journeys to the real centres of the fur trade. Those whose curiosity might have tempted them into the interior were frightened away by the exaggerated reports of the terrible severities of the climate, and it was difficult to contradict these, for the land was quite out of the beaten tracks. It took ten weeks to travel by canoe from Montreal to Fort Garry, the fur-trading station which stood on the site of the present Winnipeg, and goods were usually sent by way of Hudson Bay.

A picture of the life at this time in the region of the Red River is given by the American poet Whittier—

" Out and in the river is winding
The links of its long red chain,
Through belts of dusky pine-land
And gusty leagues of plain.

" Only at times a smoke-wreath
With the drifting cloud-rack joins,
The smoke of the hunting lodges
Of the wild Assiniboines.

" Drearily blows the north wind
From the land of ice and snow ;
The eyes that look are weary,
And heavy the hands that row.

" The voyageur smiles as he listens
To the sound that grows apace ;
Well he knows the vesper ringing
Of the bells of St. Boniface.

" The bells of the Roman mission
That call from the turrets twain
To the boatman on the river,
To the hunter on the plain."

In many respects, Canada is the Scotland of America. It holds the most northern position of the Continent. Its lands are in many parts rugged. Its climate, though bracing, is severe ; and last, but not least, a large portion

of its settlers are of Scottish descent. In the lands to the north and west of the Great Lakes, there are many names to remind us of the part played by the North Britons among the earliest explorers, such as Forts Garry and M'Leod, the Mackenzie, etc.

In 1869 these North-West territories were known as the "Great Lone Land," but, before another year had passed, loneliness and seclusion had begun to give place to activity. The Government which had just been formed determined to take over the lands of the fur-trading companies. Many of the fur traders, fearful that they would stand to lose by the transfer, and urged on by an ignorant leader, rose in rebellion, and a military expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley was sent against them. Proceeding by boats along the trail of the old fur traders, this Red River Expedition soon broke down all resistance. This, however, was the smallest of its services. What was of infinitely more importance, it lifted the curtain and allowed the world at large to gain its first peep of the wonderful land in the great North-West.

Still there was something needed. Heavy crops could be produced, but there were no means of forwarding them to the market, and it was not till 1882, when the railway was first brought to Winnipeg, that Manitoba, the Red River Settlement, was really opened to the world.

Then sluggishness and stagnation gave place to bustle and movement. The most numerous of the new settlers were drawn from the farmers' sons of Nova Scotia and Ontario. The reports they sent home to their families were so extraordinary that, according to a common saying in Old Canada, all who went to Manitoba forgot how to speak the truth.

We have read in verse a picture of the old life along the Red River. Look now at one of the new.

> "Softly the shadows of prairie-land wheat
> Ripple and riot adown to her feet,
> Onward and onward her fertile expanse
> Shakes, as the tide of her children advance
> Onward, and soon on her welcoming soil
> Cities shall grow apace, thousands shall toil."

CHAPTER LV.

The Newest Prairie Provinces.

"TIME is a remarkable wizard who makes weird changes," and hardly had Manitoba become the focus of attraction and the region of activity, when the centre was shifted still further to the west.

As the prairie land approaches the Rocky Mountains, the rainfall is insufficient for the cultivation of wheat, and the country becomes an ideal one for grazing purposes. It was once the home of the western Indians, who roamed over the prairies hunting the bison, or buffalo, till they had destroyed it. At first they contested the advance of the white man, but that day is long past; and, when the bison had disappeared, and with it their means of livelihood, they came, like children, to the Reserves to be fed and clothed.

They are still to be seen now and then in the North-West, and pretty pictures they make, with their gay-coloured blankets, curious wigwams, and fleet ponies. But the attempts to civilize them have met with little success. Blackfeet, Crees, and Sioux are all alike in their lack of desire of civilization.

They show little fondness for farming or work of any



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A FARM IN THE MAKING.

kind, although in the Qu'Appelle Reservation, through the influence of industrial schools, many of them have been induced to become large producers of grain.

We shall, perhaps, have more sympathy with these Red Indians when we notice the attraction which the life of freedom on the prairies still possesses for restless spirits from the Old World, whose desires are all satisfied by life on a cattle ranch.

Many young Britons have found in the new provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan a real paradise. Life is almost entirely passed in the open air. At night their pillows are the prairie grass, their candles are the stars.

Ranching is chiefly confined to Southern Alberta and Western Assiniboia, where the winter season is not severe or lasting. Snowfalls are neither heavy nor frequent, and the days in winter are usually bright and cloudless. By April a profusion of flowers has bespangled the prairie till it is one mass of colour. When summer comes, though the heat of the day is great, the nights are cool, and sleep and rest readily follow a day's exertion.

The chief credit for the growth of the ranching industry is due to the Mounted Police, and the story once more illustrates the importance of small beginnings. In 1876, a member of the Mounted Police bought a small herd of cattle, consisting of one bull and fourteen cows, and turned them loose on the prairie to take their chance.

The result was surprising. Without shelter or provision of food, they managed to survive the winter, and even to thrive under what seemed the hardest of conditions.

From this start, the business has grown till it is now one of the most valuable in the world, and 60,000 head of cattle are annually exported. The industry is still in its

infancy, for there are 200,000,000 acres of grazing land available in the two provinces, and the importance of the production is still further seen in the fact that it includes sheep and horses as well as cattle. Moreover, as the land develops it will be found that the Saskatchewan, which is a fine navigable river, will form an important means of communication leading towards Lake Winnipeg.



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CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICE.

Thus, among Empire builders must be placed the Canadian Mounted Police, who were enrolled, in the first instance, to keep an eye on the Red Indians, and have turned out to be the pioneers of civilization in the further west. Their life is lonely and strenuous, and their services are well removed from the glare of the lime-light, so that it is pleasing to find that their work has been recorded in the following verses.

The Riders of the Plains.

"We wake the prairie echoes with
The ever-welcome sound,
'Ring out the boot and saddle,' till
Its stirring notes resound.
Our horses toss their bridled heads
And chafe against the reins;
Ring out, ring out the marching call
Of the Riders of the Plains.

"Full many a league o'er prairie wild
Our trackless path must be,
And round it roam the fiercest tribes
Of Blackfoot and of Cree;
But danger from their savage bands
Our dauntless heart disdains—
That heart which bears the helmet up
Of the Riders of the Plains.

"The thunderstorm sweeps o'er our way,
But onward still we go;
We scale the rugged mountain range,
Descend the valleys low;
We face the dread Saskatchewan,
Brimmed high with heavy rains;
With all his might he cannot check
The Riders of the Plains.

"We muster but three hundred
In all this great lone land,
Which stretches o'er the continent
To where the Rockies stand;
But not one heart doth falter,
No coward voice complains
That few, too few, in numbers are
The Riders of the Plains.

"Our mission is to plant the rule
Of Britain's freedom here,
Restrain the lawless savage and
Protect the pioneer;
And 'tis a proud and daring trust
To hold these vast domains
With but three hundred mounted men,
The Riders of the Plains.

"We bear no lifted banner,
The soldier's care and pride;
No waving flags lead onward
Our horsemen when they ride;
The sense of duty well discharged
All idle thought restrains,
No other spur to action need
The Riders of the Plains.

"Ours is no marble monument,
Ours is no graven stone,
To blazon to a wondering world
What deeds our dead have done;
But the prairie flow'r blooms lightly here,
The creeping wild rose trains
Its wealth of summer beauty o'er
The Riders of the Plains."

CHAPTER LVI.

British Columbia.

THE most westerly of the arch of provinces which stretches across North America is known as British Columbia, and its earliest history is associated with the traders of the Hudson Bay Company. Alexander Mackenzie was the first European to approach the province from the

land side, and he followed for a part of its course what was afterwards known as the Fraser River, leaving its whole course to be traced later by Simon Fraser, from whom the river was named.

As was the case with the lone North-West, the Hudson Bay Merchants established their trading posts, and sold their wares, but tried to keep secret their knowledge of the land. They would have had a better chance of success, had it not been for the presence of gold.

In 1849, it became known that gold was to be found in California, and search was almost immediately made in other likely gold-producing regions. Among these was British Columbia, and the searchers were rewarded by rich discoveries of the precious metal.

The story is similar to that of the gold-seekers in Australia. There was the same wild stampede of miners and explorers, the same feverish excitement, the same rash exploits, the same greed, and the same outrages and disregard for human life.

Then followed the same waning of popularity. Cities, houses, roads, and bridges were abandoned, and left to the Indians, and the former buzz of activity in many places was replaced by solitude. Yet the gold fever had fulfilled a mission beyond itself. It had brought the province of British Columbia before the notice of the most desirable class of settlers—those who are ready to woo the soil for the riches which can be obtained by farming.

In truth, it was no ordinary land. Grouped with provinces which contain such highly fertile areas, its soil is perhaps more generous than any of the others. Nature has bestowed on it special favours. On one side it is sheltered by the high wall of the Rocky Mountains. Its coast is without a parallel in the world. Day after

day a vessel can wind in and out of its network of islands and its labyrinth of inlets, and these indentations allow the warm waters of the Japanese current to penetrate well into the land. The Cascade Range breaks most of the heavy rain-clouds which are blown in from the Pacific Ocean, and thus the surface is afforded additional shelter on the west.

To the advantages of a sheltered position and a desirable sea-coast must be added the benefits which are to be obtained from the variety of its surface. Columbus, when once questioned on the appearance of Jamaica, crumpled up a piece of paper to give a pictorial illustration of the character of its hills and valleys. The illustration is even truer of British Columbia than of Jamaica, for the land west of the Rockies is a real sea of mountains and hills crossed by a tangle of valleys and providing endless slopes. These valleys form some of the finest fruit grounds in the whole world, and their peaches and grapes, apples and cherries cannot be surpassed anywhere.

In many respects, British Columbia and the prairie provinces can be made to supplement each other. Manitoba has no timber, yet wood is a necessity for all kinds of buildings, and, in the opinion of those best qualified to judge, the Douglas pine of British Columbia makes the best building timber in the world.

Again, Alberta and Assiniboia are unable to grow fruit, but in British Columbia orchards can be planted on every hand, and after the timber has been removed from the sides of the mountains the land is ready for fruit-growing. Even during the first few years, when the grower must wait till his trees mature, he can cultivate such small fruit as strawberries.

In return for the fruit and the timber supplied to them,

the Prairie Provinces supply British Columbia with wheat, which it cannot grow nearly so well on account of its moister climate.

But, with all its natural wealth, British Columbia would not have been able to advance had it not been for its connection with the other provinces through the railway. Some idea of the immense distances with which Canada deals can be judged from the fact that once Nova Scotia was said to lie "east of the sunrise," and to the Nova Scotians, British Columbia was "west of the sunset." Each seemed to lie in a different world.

The British Columbians, therefore, in giving their consent to join the Canadian federation, made it a condition that the construction of a railway across the continent should be proceeded with.

The task of piercing the Rocky Mountains can only be appreciated by those who have seen them; yet, in spite of all obstacles and difficulties, the work was undertaken and pushed to a successful issue.

To make the ascent and descent at all possible, the railway has to wind about in a series of spirals. At one moment the train passes along the edge of a precipice with 1,500 feet of rock below. At another, it runs on a track so narrow that a passenger looking from the car window sees only the mountain torrent below.

In another section it passes through miles of snow-sheds—enormous structures planned to resist the heaviest avalanches. It winds in and out ravines and gorges where the sunlight can barely penetrate. It plunges into tunnels bored in the mountain sides, and again threads its way through the fastnesses of the hills, so that every minute the traveller's wonder increases that Nature's strongholds could have been so successfully invaded by man.

CHAPTER LVII.

Australia.

THE islands of the Pacific Ocean fall into one of two classes according as they are of volcanic or of coral formation, and the two chief British possessions in the South Seas bear evidence of this fact. Some of the most striking natural features of New Zealand are due to former volcanic action, while the eastern or Pacific side of Australia is shielded by the Great Barrier Reef, which was the work of the coral. This reef has played an important part in history. The earliest navigators saw Australia on its northern, western and southern sides. It was not until the time of Captain Cook that its eastern shores were visited, and yet it was the east which afforded the most suitable centre from which explorations could be conducted and settlements made.

Captain Cook was the first to cross the Barrier Reef, but it nearly led to his undoing, for near the spot named Cape Tribulation, his vessel was pierced by a spike of coral, and, had it not remained as a plug in the hole it had made, nothing could have prevented his ship from sinking.

But Cook's reports, though he had seen Australia on its fairest side, were none too reassuring. A rich profusion of wild flowers had been noted around a bay, which thus obtained the name of Botany Bay, but, beyond this, there was little to recommend the "Great South Land." The Dutch, who had searched the more accessible coasts in order to extend their trade, had reported that the land was miserable and utterly unsuited for their purpose. The natives had nothing they could offer in the way of barter. They knew neither how to sow nor how to plant. They had no means of providing for the morrow. Their knowledge of working with minerals was an entire

blank. Their land seemed barren, waterless, and singularly deficient in game.

Some few years after Cook's discoveries, the American colonies were lost to Great Britain, and a proposal was made that the Australian Continent would form a good home for the " loyal colonists " who had lost their fortunes in the recent strife on account of their devotion to the Mother Land. But against this, it was pointed out that to transplant them to Australia would be but to remove them from the unkindness of man and expose them to the harshness of Nature. Another suggestion had more points in its favour. Instead of confining convicts in the pestilential gaols of the period, why should they not be sent to this land, some 12,000 miles away, where, removed from their old associations, they would have a chance of reforming their evil ways and settling down to a new life ?

This scheme was approved by the Government, and Lord Sydney selected Captain Arthur Phillip to take charge of the new colony, whose boundaries were stated to be Cape York on the north and South Cape (Tasmania) on the south. On his voyage outwards, Captain Phillip made an important discovery. Just south of the Cape of Good Hope, he fell in with a steady westerly wind which took him to Tasmania almost without tacking (1787).

But though the voyage was attended by this piece of good fortune, the landing was beset with difficulties. It had been decided to form a settlement at Botany Bay, the place which had appealed to Captain Cook and his companions by its beautiful flowers, but Phillip found it was quite unsuitable for a first settlement. The anchorage was poor, and the waters very shallow. The surrounding country was uninviting, and there was but a poor supply of fresh water.

Without delay they searched for a more favourable site "higher up the coast," and with unbounded joy and relief found the peaceful waters of Port Jackson, with its innumerable bays and coves. Phillip was delighted, and in his letter home described it as the "finest harbour in the world, in which a thousand sail of the line may ride in the most perfect safety."

The settlement which grew up on its shores was named after Sydney, the statesman who had selected Captain Phillip to be the founder of the new branch of the British Empire.

CHAPTER LVIII.

Australia's Salvation.

THOUGH Captain Phillip had lighted upon a magnificent site for his new colony, the prospects of final success were dismal indeed. One of the first settlers described the situation in the following words: "The soil is desolate and sterile. There is no hope that it will ever grow sufficient food to maintain the settlement."

Yet, at the present time, Australia is able to produce almost all the good things of the earth. How can we explain this disagreement between the forecast and the sequel? Chiefly by the fact that the new land presented entirely new problems compared with those which had been found elsewhere. It needed to be understood; and as soon as it was realized that its soil, its seasons and its climate could be brought under new methods of treatment, then prosperity began to smile on the land.

The land around Sydney is not suited to the growth of corn, and the early settlers, who tried to cultivate it on the lines with which they had always been familiar, were doomed to complete disappointment. In fact,

the whole of the eastern coast strip is unsuited to the growth of wheat.

But a present of some sheep turned the attention of the colony to a direction in which Australia could outstrip the whole world. Rumours soon began to reach England that the new country was not a land of desolation but of great promise, and the magic of the transformation was largely due to Captain Macarthur, who led the way in the rearing of sheep. It was the time when the working of the Industrial Revolution was first beginning to be felt. The use of machinery had vastly increased the rate of production, and everywhere the cry in England was for more wool.

Hitherto, Spain had been considered the only country that could produce fine wool, but it was now found that the Australian wool was finer than the Spanish, and the improved fabrics of to-day's mills are largely due to the superior quality of Australian wool.

But though, as we proceed, we shall not fail to be struck with Nature's bounty to the great Southern Land, yet there is one gift she withholds, and that is a regular supply of fresh water. It was in 1813 that a severe drought visited the colony, and the colonists, with their flocks of sheep, had to face complete ruin, unless they were able to pierce the mountain barrier which hemmed them in on the west. Their strip of coast land was only about 40 miles wide, and there was an opinion abroad that the inside of the continent was a vast desert. Still, it was known that desperate convicts, in their bid for freedom, had made their way westwards, and the time had come when it was vital to the colony that further information should be obtained.

With their flocks and herds rapidly diminishing, three

men set out, determined at all costs to find what lay beyond the Blue Mountains. They had to contend with difficulties that seemed insurmountable, but at last they reached a point from which they could view the vast Bathurst Plains at their feet.

They then returned to report their discovery. Macquarie, the governor of the colony, at once sent men to complete their investigations. These crossed the watershed and found a river which they named the Macquarie. The plains were named after Earl Bathurst, who was the Minister at that time in charge of the colonies, and scarcely was the road made from Sydney to the plains, when graziers transferred their flocks to the new pastures.

The town of Bathurst grew up, and became the centre for fresh explorations. Settlers spread to the Goulburn plains and the pastures at the foot of the Liverpool Range. The area for expansion, which formerly was so cramped, now seemed limitless.

A new era opened before the eyes of people in the Mother Land. In the years which followed the Battle of Waterloo, when there was terrible poverty throughout the British Isles, it was seen that Australia offered a home for those in want of work. Men began to regard New South Wales as a goal for emigration rather than as a gaol for criminals.

The course for the Australian pioneer was singularly easy. Unlike the settlers in India he had no fever-stricken jungles to face. The climate was bracing rather than enervating. There was not a single fierce animal to fear, either on the mountains or in the valleys. There were no forests through which he had to hew his way like his fellows in North America, neither were there any warlike inhabitants who would dog

his steps and fall upon him at the first convenient opportunity.

The only foe he had to dread was drought, for the great continent lacked a backbone of mountains, and thus failed to attract and store the rains. The settlers, in their constant search for pastures, had to drive their flocks and herds before them, and "squat" wherever they could find suitable spots. They usually followed the course of the muddy streams which meandered through the plains, learning to subdue Nature more and more as they understood her.

In this way the wool industry, which is one of the chief pillars of Australia's prosperity, has grown up, and Nature's provision for the success of this industry is wonderfully complete. The feature which marks the climate through and through is dryness. Even in winter the air of the inland plain is bright, clear, and warm during the day, cold and frosty at night. Moreover, of all animals the sheep makes the least demands on mankind. The cow gives its keeper no rest. Twice a day the dairy farmer must attend to his herd. But the sheep, with a little pasture, a little water, and a secure fence, requires no attention except at the lambing and shearing seasons.

Evidence of the character of the climate can be seen in several directions. It has left its mark on Australian manhood. Their thin, wiry bodies suggest a sun-dried race, and probably no men on earth can endure so readily stress of work, of hunger, and of thirst. The climate also invites the spirit of sport. There are in most areas at least 300 fine sunny days in the year. Cricket can be played from one year's end to the other, and the Australians have thus won a foremost place in the domain of outdoor games.

CHAPTER LIX.

Further Settlements on the Sea-coast.

It was soon found that a colony composed of convicts and free settlers was unsatisfactory, and towards the end of Macquarie's rule a plan was adopted of placing the worst convicts in a station by themselves. Accordingly a place was sought on the coast northwards, and the choice fell on Moreton Bay. A river which fell into Moreton Bay was named the Brisbane River, in memory of Sir Thomas Brisbane, then governor of New South Wales, and a settlement was formed twenty-five miles from the mouth of the river.

In accordance with the original plan, free settlers were forbidden to approach within fifty miles of the new settlement. But nothing could stop the stockowners, who were ever on the look-out for fresh pastures, and little by little they made their way past Newcastle, crossed the Darling Downs, and thus reached the land around Brisbane from its western side.

The needs of the colony had thus made out a case for the use of the land on which the penal establishment was placed, and it was decided to remove it elsewhere.

It was still some years before transportation of criminals ceased, for the Home Government found this the most convenient way of filling up the empty spaces of Australia's territory, especially when there was a danger that the French would step in.

It was but natural that the French should wish to share in the valuable possession, and it does not appear that the British, when they founded the colony of New South Wales, had avowed their intention of claiming the whole of the continent. Bass and Flinders, two men of Lincolnshire, in the last years of the eighteenth century



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VIEW OF HOBART TOWN AND MOUNT WELLINGTON, TASMANIA.

had explored the coasts along which Cook had not sailed, and so it was known which spots should be seized when there was the danger of a scramble.

The same navigators had also thoroughly explored the seas around Tasmania, and remarked on the beautiful opening of Port Phillip. Thus, when in 1803 there were rumours of the French intentions, the Governor of New South Wales sent soldiers and convicts to Tasmania (then called Van Diemen's Land), with instructions to form a settlement on the banks of the Derwent. The new station was named Hobart after the then Secretary of State for the Colonies.

The same fear of French activity, which had hastened the occupation of Tasmania, caused the Home Government to send out an expedition to make a settlement on the shores of Port Phillip. The commander reached the spot, but he was unfortunate in the places he examined. The only fresh water to be found was obtained by sinking perforated casks in the sand; the soil appeared quite unsuitable for cultivation, and the nearest good timber was fourteen miles away.

There was good reason to believe that good land and fresh streams were to be found higher up the bay, but the commander had a great dread of the natives, and so sent an open boat round to Sydney asking that he might transfer his settlement bodily to Van Diemen's land. Thus the proposed station on Port Phillip was abandoned till thirty years passed, when settlers from Tasmania revived the idea, and a town named Melbourne was laid out in honour of the British Prime Minister.

It was the fear of the French that gave birth to yet another station, which was the first attempt to form a colony in Western Australia. In 1826, General Ralph Darling, who was the Governor of New South Wales, sent

a military expedition to the fine harbour formed by King George's Sound, the site of the town of Albany.

In the next year, explorations were continued along the coast, and the explorers were much struck by the beauty of a river, which had been previously named by the Dutch the Swan River on account of the black swans seen there.

The description was sent to Britain at a time when the hunger for land was very widespread. Captain Fremantle was placed in charge of the men who were sent out as pioneers, but it was found that the land which had promised such great things when viewed from the sea was, in reality, a barren sandy waste. The Swan River was useless for navigation, as its mouth was blocked by a bar, and to rescue the settlement from an early death it was decided to divert the stream of convicts thither.

CHAPTER LX.

Explorations Inland (Part I).

As befitting an Empire which was resting on the rule of the waves, the earliest settlements in Australia were fixed on the sea-coast, and the positions of the capitals of the various divisions are a standing witness to this fact. But in Australia there is the added reason that the interior is most difficult of access. The wide plains of the Murray and Darling Rivers are shut off from the sea by mountains which go under the general name of the "Dividing" Range because of the barrier they interpose.

But men in their search for "fresh fields and pastures new" were not to be checked by any ordinary obstacles, and explorer after explorer set out to find the secrets of the interior. Hamilton Hume led the way from Sydney to the south. Crossing the Blue Mountains, he struck



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THE RIVER DERWENT AND HOP GARDENS, NEW NORFOLK, TASMANIA.

across the Murrumbidgee and the Murray Rivers, and recrossed the dividing range to reach Port Phillip at Geelong.

Sturt, another explorer, traced the course of the Macquarie, and followed the Murray to its mouth. This opening had been overlooked by Flinders in his survey, although he had named the larger bay into which the Murray discharges its waters Encounter Bay, because at that spot he had encountered the survey ships from France.

News of Sturt's discovery of the greatest of Australian rivers brought a desire to establish another settlement in what is now known as South Australia. Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield came forward with a scheme for colonising the land, which was to have no convicts transported to its borders. The first settlers made their headquarters on St. Vincent Gulf, and named it Adelaide in honour of the wife of King William IV.

Later, Edward John Eyre started from Adelaide in the hope of crossing the continent. He took with him five Europeans and three aborigines. Though the latter are perhaps among the lowest races of mankind, they had developed much intelligence in their search for water. They knew of its storage in the roots and stems of certain trees, and were guided to it by the presence of the kangaroo and dingo. Moreover, they had learned to make "rock-holes" in which the water might fall from the face of the large rocks.

Eyre journeyed first to the head of Spencer Gulf, where he was met by a small vessel bringing provisions. He directed his course to the west till he met what seemed to be a large lake. On examination, this turned out to be dried up and covered with a sheet of salt which glittered in the sunlight. The explorers tried to venture

on its surface, but it cracked at every step and their feet sank into thick, black mud.

At last they were forced to retrace their steps and find their way round its shores. Twice they were repulsed, and when at last they found a considerable stream their joy was turned to sadness when they discovered it was salt.

They returned to the head of Spencer Gulf, but, being unwilling to return to Adelaide and report failure, they decided to travel along the shores of the Great Australian Bight, and trace its coast to Albany. The absence of water again hindered their march, but bravely they struggled on, through loose sand, and over burning rocks, till, at last, overcome with their difficulties, they made for the coast, hailed a passing vessel, and were taken on to Albany.

In 1844, Sturt, who had traced the course of the main rivers, offered to pursue his explorations further into the interior. Starting in the winter season from the banks of the Darling, he and his party reached the Barrier or Stanley Range. Journeying northwards, they came to another chain of hills which Sturt called the Grey Range. By this time the summer had come, and the heat of the sandy plains was such that it cracked the hoofs of the horses and dried up the water from the creeks. The ink dried on their pens before it could be transferred to paper; their nails became brittle and they could not touch metal but it burned their fingers.

When summer was over, and rain had fallen, they started again on their march northwards till they came to barren red sand and lakes of bitter salt water. This, Sturt called the Stoney Desert, and he was compelled by it to turn back. With the exception of the fine stream which he called Cooper's Creek, the whole of the interior seemed to be one vast desert.

CHAPTER LXI.

Explorations Inland (Part II).

THE shape of Australia is remarkably regular, and the only long peninsula and the only deep gulf it possesses belong to the same province, Queensland. All this



SCRAPING SALT ON LAKE PARAWURLIE, SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

north-eastern portion of the Continent remained unexplored till 1844, when a young German botanist, Leichhardt, left Sydney and travelled over what is now Queensland, a land which differs considerably from the rest of the Continent.

Whereas the rest of Australia is noted for its absence of streams and lack of water, the north-eastern corner is a real land of rivers and streams. Not only so, but there are the accompaniments of well-watered land on every hand. The banks of the streams are well timbered. Splendid fig-trees rise up, side by side with enormous eucalyptus trees, and their great branches are frequently festooned with flowering creepers.

Where water is needed for the purpose of irrigation, the people of Queensland resort to artesian wells, which promise great things for the future of the colony. It was Leichhardt who first passed through the magnificent forests and fine pastures of the north. He discovered and traced many large rivers, and reached the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria. At Van Diemen Gulf, in Northern Territory, he found a ship waiting to take him back to Sydney, where he received a public subscription of £1,500 and a grant from the Government of £1,000.

Later, he tried to go from Moreton Bay to the Swan River settlement, but this time he failed, and perished in the interior.

It will be seen from the map that the journey from East to West will present more terrors than that between North and South. In 1859, Stuart, who had been with Sturt in his expedition to the Stoney Desert, was employed by some squatters to explore new country, found a way between Lake Eyre and Lake Torrens, and discovered some fine pastures.

In the following year he made a bid for the offer of £2,000 which the South Australian Government had promised to the person who should first cross the Continent from South to North. Starting from Adelaide he directed his course towards Van Diemen Gulf, and completed

his course with the exception of 250 miles. Then want of food made him give up his undertaking, but two years later he managed to complete the entire journey.

About the same time, Burke and Wills made a similar attempt to cross from North to South in response to an offer by a Melbourne merchant of £1,000 for further exploration. Twenty-six camels were brought from Arabia, and a total sum of £10,000 was got together towards the expense of the expedition.

The members started from Melbourne, and, stage by stage, reached the Murrumbidgee, the Darling and Cooper's Creek. They kept along the 140th meridian and found the country covered with forests of box wood and well-watered plains.

Next they came to the Flinders, on whose banks was growing most luxuriant tropical vegetation. Then, having reached the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria, they started to return. But the heat and the exertion had told on their strength, and both Burke and Wills died before they could succeed in reaching Adelaide.

CHAPTER LXII.

Mineral Wealth (Part I).

THE discovery that Australia, with its dry climate and broad acres, was a splendid land for sheep-farming had first opened out visions of prosperity, but the discovery of gold, which was announced in 1851, caused the land to spring at once into the position of a real treasure-house capable of enriching many beyond their wildest dreams. It is somewhat remarkable that New South Wales, which was the first of the colonies in order of birth, should lead the way to the riches for which the whole land afterwards became so famous.

The curiosity of the world at large had been roused by the discovery of gold in California. Hargraves, an Australian adventurer, had journeyed to that land to try his fortune, and on his arrival had been much impressed by the similarity between the gold district of California and the places known to him in Australia. The longer he pondered on the likeness, the stronger became his conviction that there must be gold in his old home.

Accordingly he hastened back, and had little difficulty in proving that his observations were well founded. Around Bathurst there were great stores of wealth, and, to make the attraction greater, the gold lay in large lumps near the surface.

No sooner did the news leak out than there was the "rush" which has always been a feature of the different discoveries all over the world. It is perhaps not to be wondered at that the true state of affairs should have been greatly distorted. It was rumoured abroad that gold might be picked up in Australia just as stones can be in England. Certainly fortune did at times smile on some lucky seekers, who, by a turn of the pick, were made rich and independent for the rest of their days. But there were many more who were doomed to ruin, disappointment, and distress.

One unfortunate feature of the "gold fever" was that other industries were deserted. Sailors abandoned their ships, labourers left their masters, and farmers had to stand by and see their crops spoil, because there was no one to harvest them. Under such circumstances prices rose enormously. Wheat jumped from 4s. to 16s. 5d. per bushel, potatoes from 7s. to 21s. 4d. per cwt., and on the goldfields prices often reached fabulous figures.



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MOUNT BISCHOFF TIN MINE, TASMANIA.

The other colonies viewed with alarm the rush of people from their borders. Victoria, in order to provide a counter-attraction offered a reward of £200 to anyone who should discover a goldfield within 200 miles of Melbourne. This caused many people to go grubbing for gold, and soon the famous Ballarat fields were discovered.

The finding of gold in Victoria led to even wilder scenes of disorder. The fields were near the coast and could be readily reached by the shiploads of people who hastened thither.

Tasmania had been liberally stocked with convicts. Its mountains and glens afforded good protection to the "bushrangers," or convicts who had taken refuge in the bush in order to lead a lawless life. In fact, in the mouths of many at this time Van Diemen's Land was more often "Demon's Land."

Tasmania, which was near the Victorian goldfields, parted with the worst of its criminals, who found ample employment in plunder and even murder. Gold escorts were waylaid and robbed, vessels in the harbour were boarded and stripped of their wealth.

The Government seemed powerless to deal with the crimes, which were of daily occurrence, and it was some time before it was found that nothing short of the severest measures would restore order.

Like Victoria, Queensland was anxious to attract some gold-seekers to its territories, and rewards ranging from £200 to £1,000 were offered for the discovery of rich goldfields. Some deposits were discovered 130 miles north of Brisbane, and other fields were found from time to time. Far to the north on the Mitchell River there were rich finds, though on account of the tropical heat, these had to employ many thousands of Chinamen.

But richest of all is the Mount Morgan mine near Rockhampton. It was bought for £640 and sold for £8,000,000, and it is thought to be worth at the present time at least double that sum.

CHAPTER LXIII.

Mineral Wealth (Part II).

At one time it looked as though all the colonies had stores of mineral wealth except Western Australia, and indeed that it had been quite forgotten by Nature in the distribution of her gifts. But what Nature withholds with one hand she not infrequently bestows with the other, and though Western Australia is not well suited for agricultural or pastoral industries, its goldfields are now known to be the wealthiest in the world.

The first field of importance to be discovered was the Kimberley Field in the north of the colony. Some few years later, two men who had met with some success in the Murchison fields sold their gold in Perth and started off to the north-east on a fresh search.

They reached the native well at Coolgardie and then, with little effort, secured 200 oz. of gold. This showed the way to a most important discovery, for the Murchison and Coolgardie fields are practically one, and cover an area more than three times the size of Ireland.

Such is the enormous output of gold that a branch of the Royal Mint has been established at Perth, and now much of the gold produced in Western Australia is coined there. The greatest difficulty in the way of mining is the want of water, but, as the shafts of the mines are being deepened, subterranean water is found, and it is hoped that the water difficulty will in time disappear.

Pearls can hardly come under the head of minerals, but, as they are of the nature of precious stones, it may be well to notice that Western Australia derives considerable wealth from its pearl fisheries. It is worthy of remark that, just as Australia's Pacific side has its supplies of coral, so the western or Indian coast stands side by side with Ceylon in its supply of pearls.

There are traces of the presence of gold in South Australia, but great finds like those in the adjoining states have not yet been made. There are, however, people who believe that the day will come when the gold, which is thought to be safely stowed away in Nature's treasury, will be revealed to the world. At present South Australia's mineral wealth consists of copper, the annual export of which amounts to £23,000,000.

But even the marvellous quantity of gold hidden within its bosom does not exhaust all Australia's wealth of precious minerals. It possesses the greatest silver mine in the world, Broken Hill, in New South Wales, and this mine was discovered by a boundary rider, that is, a man engaged on a sheep station to ride round the boundary fences and see that they are in a state of good repair.

Nay, more, though we are apt to be dazzled by the glitter of what are called the precious metals, we must remember that in these days of steamships and railway engines, coal is equally a precious mineral. The name of New South Wales, which Cook gave to the land on the eastern shores, contained a note of prophecy, for the new land was to become a rival of Wales in its supply of coal. This will account for the name of Newcastle, which stands at the centre of the coastal strip of New South Wales, where the coal is often so near to the surface that a mere tunnel in the hill-side will expose its seams to view.

CHAPTER LXIV.

Farming in Australia.

THE "gold fever" passed away, but it left its mark upon Australia. First of all it had called attention to the possibilities of the "Great Southern Land," and many of those who had rushed out to seek their fortunes through a lucky "find" of gold remained to earn their livings in the less exciting but more truly golden opportunities of the continent. There was a great inducement to settle in the country, because of the Government's offer of free land, and the desire for property in land has always been a ruling passion of the human race.

Moreover, when the gold had been removed from the surface layers, mining became a matter for large capitalists who could afford to provide expensive machinery. Thus the appetite for land took the place of the hunger for gold, and there grew up a farming class who brought great weight and stability to the State.

At first sight, it seems incredible that Australia, with its scarcity of water, and its distance from the great consumers of the world, could make farming a thriving industry. That it has been able to do so is largely due to two facts. First, it has had to adopt a special system of cultivation, which differs entirely from that followed in the older countries. It is easier and cheaper to produce a thin crop over a large area in Australia than a full crop over a more restricted area, requiring careful tilling and attention.

The second fact is that Australia, being in the southern hemisphere, has seasons which are the reverse of the Mother Country. Christmas, which is midwinter for the British, is midsummer for the Australians. Thus the Australian crops reach Britain at the time of the



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RAISIN DRYING IN SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

year when they are most needed. This is especially true of the fruit crop. Tasmania has devoted a large share of its attention to fruit-growing, and its apples reach the London market in the spring, when the supply of English-grown apples has been exhausted.

The dry, sunny climate of Australia favours the growth of wheat and the vine. Its wines have made a name for themselves, even in those countries which can be supplied by the vineyards of France and Spain. Australian brandy now finds its way to Great Britain. The growing of grapes for currants and raisins is becoming another important branch of industry.

Wheat-growing, as practised in Australia, is worthy of special notice, and the method has been copied in other lands where the climate is dry and the farms extensive. The seed is sown, often without manure, and when the grain is ripe a giant machine strips off the corn, leaving the straw standing. Into this long stubble are turned the sheep and cattle.

Cold storage has enabled the Australians to send their perishable products to Britain, and one of the commodities sent more recently in this way is butter from the dairy farms of Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland. This butter is of such a high quality that it finds a ready market in London and elsewhere.

The northern portion of the continent lies within the tropics, and sugar-growing is an important occupation in Queensland, while on its coasts are grown large crops of the banana and pine-apple.

The land generally, once barren because of the insufficiency of water, is gradually being brought under cultivation through irrigation works. At the present time, Victoria and South Australia are embarked on large schemes for bringing water to their thirsty lands.

Western Australia has a great and costly plan for taking water from the Swan River to the arid district of Coolgardie, while New South Wales is building an enormous dam which will rival in size the gigantic dam of the Nile.

Droughts in Australia are due not so much to lack of rain as to its bad distribution. Over large areas the rainfall is equal to that of England, but the rain usually comes in bursts. In a week five inches of rain may fall and be followed by months without a shower. Thus, the problem of the future is to provide means so that the surplus water shall be stored, and used as required.

CHAPTER LXV.

The Northern Territory.

When Britain was busy planting colonies in spots which France might be tempted to occupy, there was one desirable spot which was overlooked. This was the district known as the Northern Territory, but, somewhat strangely, included for a long time in South Australia.

There was once an idea that this Northern Territory was a desolate and barren region, and the Dutch may possibly have been responsible for the circulation of this error, for they spoke of the section as being "full of devils." Closer acquaintance with the land has shown that this description is altogether wrong. It is true that the climate is unpleasantly hot, but it is not unhealthy for white people, provided that they take sufficient physical exercise.

The Northern Territory is six times the size of Victoria, and, as an inducement to settlers, the land is offered at remarkably cheap rates. So far, but few have come

forward to take advantage of the offer. There is a small white population at Port Darwin, and the Chinese provide the labour for the mines.

But there is a promising opening for the farmer. The land is well watered and the rainfall sufficient. Cattle-breeding, wherever it has been tried, has succeeded, and, judging by the large herds of wild buffaloes, the climate is extremely well suited for oxen.

When the continent of Australia was partitioned up into States, the older colonies looked askance at the Northern Territory. It forms a most natural extension of Queensland, and Queensland was asked to accept it, but declined. New South Wales might have added it to its borders, but also refused.

At last, South Australia took up the burden, though the communications between the Northern Territory and South Australia are more difficult than those between any other two colonies.

The two districts which were yoked for purposes of government were parted by the Great Australian Desert, and the only way of bringing them into touch, was through the construction of a railway. With the cheerfulness born of the sunny Australian climate, South Australia faced the problem. From Adelaide the line was laid for nearly 700 miles. From Port Darwin it was brought 145 miles to Pine Creek. Then the work stopped.

There was still a gap of 1,100 miles to be bridged, and it had become evident that South Australia, unaided, was unable to meet the cost. But what was impossible for one, was possible for the many, and, when the States of Australia agreed to form themselves into a Commonwealth, one of the first objects they set before themselves, was to complete, forthwith, the trans-continental railway.

But though South Australia failed to construct its railway, it managed to construct a telegraph line. An offer was made by a company to lay a submarine cable from Singapore to Van Diemen Gulf, if the South Australian Government would connect Adelaide with Port Darwin by an overland wire. The offer was accepted, though much of the country was unexplored, and other portions of it were known to consist of rocky, sandy deserts, lacking both water and pasture.

The work was divided into three sections. The difficulties proved to be enormous. It was found necessary to clear a track of fifty feet, through about 500 miles of forest and scrub; but at last the promoters had the satisfaction of seeing the northern and the central sections linked up at Central Mount Stuart. Thus the telegraph wire now connects Europe with Australia, and it is possible for the Australians to read at their breakfast tables accounts of events which have happened in Europe but a few hours before.

CHAPTER LXVI.

Australia of To-day (Part I).

One remarkable feature of Australia up to date is the large number of people which are congregated in its cities. Different causes have combined to bring about this result. In the earliest days, when the towns were intended as convict settlements, the dangerous criminals had to be guarded by soldiers, and free and unfettered expansion, such as took place in Canada, was impossible.

The climate and the land, as we have seen, began to encourage sheep-farming, and this meant the dispersion of the people over a large area; but the fact that the owners of the flocks needed to sell their wool to customers



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GOVERNMENT HOUSE, SYDNEY, NEW SOUTH WALES.

over the sea secured for the ports a position of great influence.

Yet again, the centres of government of the different colonies were fixed at the stations on the sea-coast, and, when railways were formed, these towns became points from which the lines radiated in various directions. It so happened that two of the capitals were starting-points for several natural highways. Sydney, as we have seen, was at a point whence the valleys of the Macquarie, the Darling, the Murrumbidgee, and the Murray rivers could readily be explored. Melbourne was situated, as it were, on the wrist of a hand, from which routes, like fingers, branched out in different ways.

The railways, in the case of Sydney and Melbourne, have intensified the tendency to collect in the capitals. The same thing would have happened in Queensland, had not the people there adopted the wiser plan of tapping the interior at various points along the coast. Thus, in the "northern colony," there are a number of small towns instead of one city unduly large.

Melbourne and Sydney, though alike in their remarkable size, are unlike in several other particulars. Sydney started with wonderful gifts from Nature. Its harbour is land-locked; its site was most beautifully broken by hills; there was ample material in stone for the building of houses.

Melbourne, on the other hand, had no such advantages. Its harbour was far from first-rate. Its site was on a plain, fringed by low hills. But the founders of the city strove to supply what Nature had denied, and now Melbourne can compare with the finest of European cities.

Hobart, in Tasmania, has a harbour which is as beautiful as that of Sydney, though less easy of access. But

Tasmania, at the present day, holds its proud position as much from its unrivalled climate as from the beauty of its landscapes. It is, in more senses than one, the "Switzerland of the Southern Seas." It is traversed by high mountain ranges full of crags, glens, and ravines, and its climate resembles that of Cornwall. The likeness to the southernmost county of England is increased by its many mines and such names as Launceston and the river Tamar.

Owing to the nearness of Tasmania to Melbourne, which in its turn can be easily reached by rail from all parts of Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, and Southern Queensland, the island of Tasmania, which is a little larger than Ceylon, is visited by hundreds of tourists, and there are few well-to-do families in the southern portions of Australia who do not make arrangements to spend some portion of the summer in its health-giving valleys, or on its breezy uplands and picturesque mountain sides.

CHAPTER LXVII.

Australia of To-day (Part II).

THE present is the child of the past, and we have only to look at Australia to-day to see how true this is. At its birth the State was the all-in-all. It fed, it clothed, it gave employment to everyone. This was because the colony was a convict settlement and there were no free settlers. The free men were the State servants who were in charge of the convicts.

Reliance upon the State became deeply ingrained in the ideas of Australians, and its impress can be very clearly traced in the laws of the present day. Yet, in conjunction with this, we must remember that the

time when Australia became a British colony was an age of political freedom and religious liberty.

Belief in State regulations meets us on every hand in the Island Continent. It is the State that owns the railways, the telegraphs, the telephones, the water-supply, the sewage works, and, in some cases, the ferries and the hotels.

Factory Acts lay down with great minuteness the hours and conditions of labour for the workshops. Early Closing Acts secure for shop assistants a weekly holiday, and, in most trades, a general closing of shops at 6 p.m.

Miners have an eight-hours' day, secured to them by the law of the land. The principle of a "minimum wage," that is, a wage which must not fall below a certain level, has also been laid down in many Acts. Old-age pensions have been provided.

These measures, moreover, are not confined to any particular State. As soon as they were adopted in one, they spread to all. Herein was seen the strong case for federation.

We have seen that New South Wales is the oldest colony. From it split off Victoria, Queensland, and Tasmania, while Western Australia and South Australia were founded independently. But there were never any separate interests, and therefore there was never any need for the States to be separate and distinct from each other. The colonists were all kinsmen, their frontiers were imaginary lines, and the boundaries between them could be fixed or altered without any heart-burnings.

It was a natural development for Australia to drift towards federation. To crystallize the desire for united action, came the danger when Chinamen arrived

in the colonies and undersold the white men in the labour market. While there was little need for them in the South, there was a strong inducement to engage them in the North, where the climate of Queensland made work in the mines and sugar plantations impossible for white people.

This question was at the bottom of the cry, "Australia for the Australians." It certainly did not mean that Australia wished to withdraw herself either from the Empire or from her Imperial obligations. On the contrary, she has shown herself possessed of an intense desire to take up her responsibilities as a member of the British Empire.

She has agreed to establish a navy to patrol her shores, which, though manned and officered by her own people, shall be trained under British regulations, and be at the disposal of the British Admiralty in times of war.

Another desire, in the same direction, is a scheme for universal citizen service, whereby a force of 250,000 men will in time be available for military duties.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

British Islands in the Pacific.

We must not only think of the British Isles as a parent hive sending out its "swarmings" into different parts, but remember also that each of the chief British possessions has in turn become a new centre of development.

We have already seen how the establishment of stations on the coast of India not only led to the conquest of the whole of the land, but spurred on the East Indian merchants to form fresh settlements in Further India and the Far East. The need of a safe road to India led

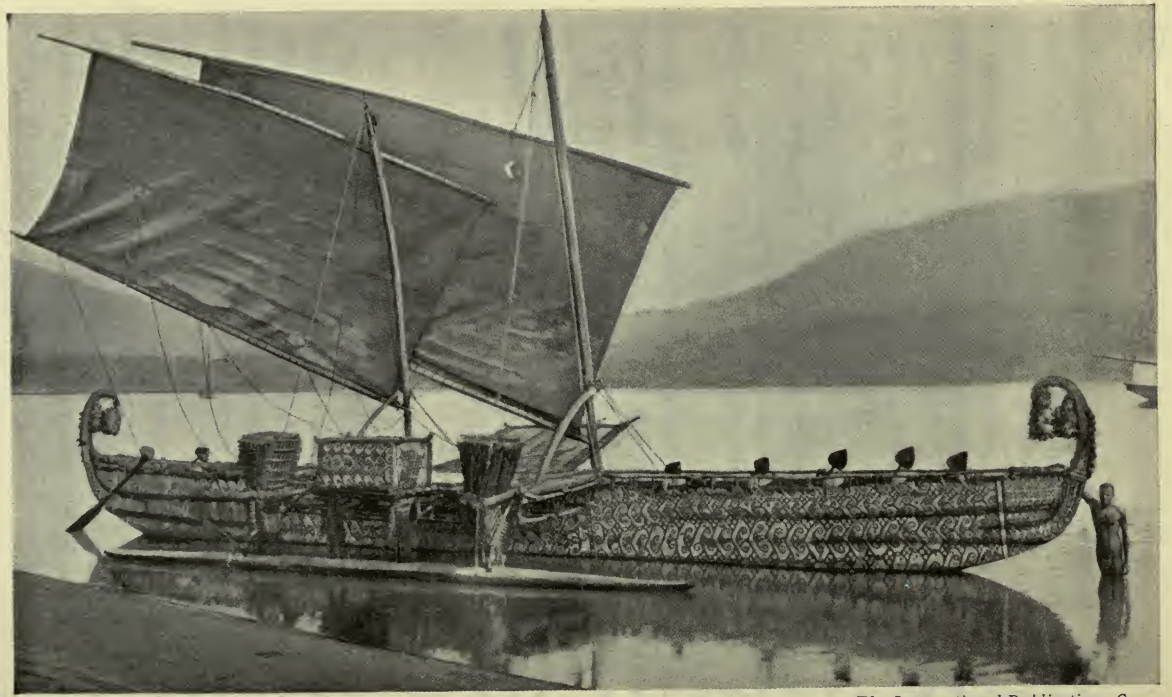


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SAILING BOAT OF THE HERMIT ISLES, N.E. OF NEW GUINEA.

to the seizure of Cape Colony and the island of Mauritius. The possession of the Cape caused a movement northwards into the heart of Africa.

Again, along the Mediterranean route, the British took Malta, and we shall read later that they found it necessary to occupy Egypt also. In the New World, the possession of Upper and Lower Canada was followed by the expansion westward to the Pacific.

Similar developments have taken place in the case of Australia. The settlements on the east have been the forerunners of stations round the whole edge of the continent; but, still further, the safety of Australia has required that Britain should acquire many of the islands that dot the Pacific.

The countless islands of this ocean are of volcanic or coral formation, or a combination of both formations, the two chief groups, the Sandwich Islands and the Fiji Islands, being volcanic.

By the time that Britain had woke up to the fact that the Pacific groups of islands were likely to be of great value in the future, when the whole earth was girdled by continuous means of communication, some of the Pacific islands had been taken by other nations.

The Sandwich Islands, which were named after Lord Sandwich, the First Lord of the Admiralty who had sent out the expedition for their discovery, had passed under the control of the United States.

The Society Islands, discovered by Captain Cook, and named by him in honour of the Royal Society which had fitted out the expedition of which he was in charge, being neglected by the British, had been taken over in 1842 by the French. New Caledonia, which had also been discovered by Cook, was occupied by the French in 1853 and made into a convict settlement.

It was while the nations of western Europe were looking out for desirable possessions in the Pacific, that the Fiji Islanders asked to be included in the British Empire.

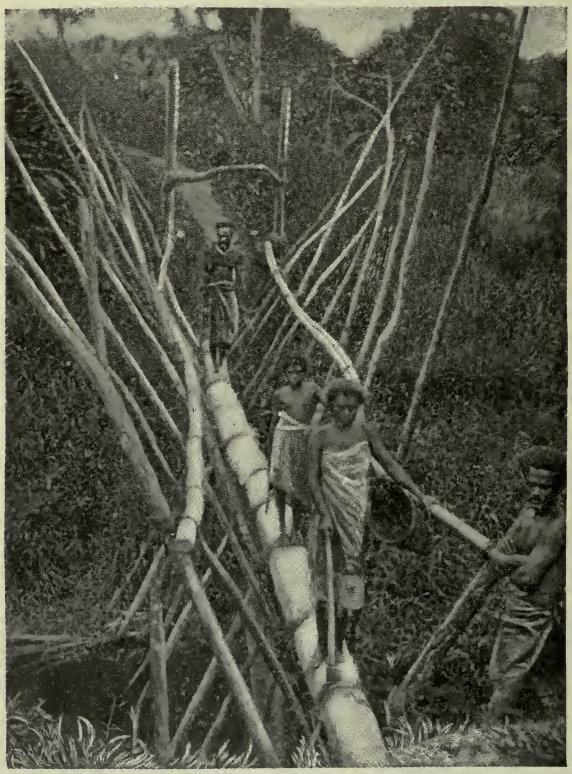


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FIJIANS CROSSING A BRIDGE OVER A RAVINE.

In 1860, Britain declined their request, but fourteen years later decided to accept it.

It is now known that the islands are likely to be of



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NATIVES FISHING WITH " TRAPS," GAZELLE ISLAND, BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO, N.E. OF NEW GUINEA.

considerable value, for they possess fine harbours, protected by coral reefs, and with the opening of the Panama Canal will become important intermediate stations between the West Indies on the one hand, and Australia and Singapore on the other.

The Fiji Islands remind us of Australia in the distribution of their vegetation. As the chief rain-bearing winds come from the east, the eastern or "weather" side of the islands possesses one dense green mantle of huge trees and countless creepers. The "lee" or sheltered side is grassy and dotted with pines.

Yet, in other respects, Australia forms a sharp contrast. In size it is so large that it has earned the name of a continent, while the small extent of the Fiji Islands makes them better described as islets. The size of Australia removes its interior entirely from a share in the rain-clouds, while the Pacific islands are always given more water than they need from the surrounding expanse of ocean.

Australia is a home of Englishmen, who, in some respects, are more intensely English than the English themselves; but the small Pacific islands are still the abode of natives with but a sprinkling of English traders and officials.

Another important possession which would probably have been lost to Britain but for the action of the Queenslanders, is the southern portion of Papua or New Guinea.

The latter name, given by the Portuguese, is interesting, because the land resembles the Guinea of West Africa in some of its features. Both have sea-coasts which are very unhealthy and the haunts of deadly fevers, while in the background are dense forests of valuable timber. Moreover, the Papuans themselves are not unlike the negroes.



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

DWELLINGS OF THE MOANUS, BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO, N.E. OF NEW GUINEA.

These houses are built on piles.

The Australian colonists of Queensland, in 1883, took possession of the eastern portion of New Guinea, fearing lest it should fall into the hands of Germany who was casting about to increase her possessions. The Home Government, unwilling to offend Germany, refused to sanction the action of the colonists, but later, when the colonists of the whole of Australia considered that the holding of a portion of New Guinea was essential to their safety, and agreed to pay £15,000 a year towards the expenses of a Protectorate, the Home Government gave way.

In some ways the passage between Cape York and New Guinea will remind us of the entrance to the Straits of Malacca at Singapore, and the likeness is the greater because New Guinea has in Port Moresby a convenient harbour, which is sheltered by a line of coral reefs.

CHAPTER LXIX.

New Zealand.

It is strange that New Zealand, which is one of the most suitable lands in the world for human habitation, should have been one of the last to attract the notice of Europeans. Yet, no doubt, the distance from Europe will account for this seeming neglect, New Zealand being almost exactly on the opposite side of the globe to England.

The first interest in the islands on the part of Englishmen begins with the voyage of Captain Cook in the *Endeavour*. Some of the incidents connected with his passage can still be read on the map.

The cape which was most easterly he named East Cape. The place where he caused his cannon to be fired to frighten away the canoes of armed natives, and



Photo by *New Zealand Government Tourist Department.*

WANGANUI RIVER.

made them return "much faster than they came," is still called Cape Runaway.

Near by, we have the record of the acts of the natives when they had realized that the English were to be treated with respect, and came forward to meet them with great hospitality. They brought an enormous supply of mackerel; in fact, it was sufficient, when salted, to provide provisions for a month for the whole crew. There was, moreover, an abundant supply of good water and wood, so that Cook seized the opportunity to clean the ship's bottom. This will serve to explain the name "Bay of Plenty," which is to be contrasted with Poverty Bay.

The arrangement of some of the islands in the Bay of Plenty suggested to Cook the town court of a Mayor and Aldermen, so he humorously named the chief of the group, the Mayor, and the others in the neighbourhood, the "Court of Aldermen."

Cook and his party landed to observe the *transit*, or passage in front of the sun's disc, of the planet Mercury, and to this circumstance we owe the name of Mercury Bay. The great archipelago on the north-west, which reminds us of many similar groups in the Pacific Ocean, was named the Bay of Islands.

Near by was a river which reminded him of the Thames at home, and consequently it received the same name. The point at which Captain Cook decided to leave the shores of New Zealand, and sail for the shores of Australia, is known as Cape Farewell. He had with him Mr. Banks, who afterwards became the President of the Royal Society, and Dr. Solander, one of the librarians in the British Museum. Cook's name is handed down to us in Cook Strait and Mount Cook; those of his companions in Banks Peninsula and Solander Island.

Two of the productions of New Zealand greatly impressed the explorers. First, there were the tall straight trees, which would be able to provide "any quantity of masts and ship timber," and, as they grew close to the water's edge, could be carried away without difficulty.

The second product was the New Zealand hemp or flax, which would provide canvas of superior strength to that made of European material. Both these commodities were of immense importance to a country like Britain, whose fortunes depended upon the rule of the waves, especially in the days of Cook, when long distances had to be traversed in sailing ships.

We might imagine from its position in the Southern Seas that New Zealand would resemble Australia, but beyond the similarity in situation they are almost entirely unlike. We have already seen that the natives of New Zealand knew the use of canoes, and in fact their fondness for coast navigation would point to the fact that their forefathers had derived their experiences from groups of islands of coral formation. The aborigines of Australia, on the other hand, knew nothing of travelling by water. The Australians were inoffensive and devoid of skill in warfare. The New Zealanders regarded themselves as born to fight.

The unlikeness of the peoples reflected the unlikeness of their lands. Australia is noteworthy for its compactness and inaccessible interior; New Zealand, though stretching 1,100 miles from north to south, in no part attains a breadth of more than 200 miles, and in one part is held together by an isthmus narrower than the isthmus of Corinth.

In New Zealand there is the sight and the sound of water everywhere. It is a land of streams of every size

and kind, while, as we have seen, Australia is characterized by its absence of rivers and, in many parts, deficiency of drinking water.

Australia is a land of open spaces. Sameness marks its scenery on many hands. New Zealand is a land of mountain and the flood, and in its hills, peaks, and coast line shows the variety which accompanies the features of the west coast of Scotland.

The climate of Australia is generally hot and dry. That of New Zealand is usually moist. The forests of Australia are more of the nature of parks. The forests of New Zealand are of the nature of dense jungles, where travellers and hunters have to cut their way through tangled thickets and interlacing creepers. In fact the glory of the forest scenery of New Zealand is its variety and luxuriance.

CHAPTER LXX.

The Long White Cloud.

RIGHT back in the past, how long no one can estimate, there set out from the Fiji Islands, or some of the islands in their neighbourhood, men in frail canoes, intent on an expedition to the South. Brave seamen they must have been to trust themselves in their small boats to the mercy of the wind and waves in the hopes of finding a new land. These were the ancestors of the Maoris, whose name, meaning "wind-wafted," records the fact of this venturesome voyage.

Their faith and hopes were rewarded by the discovery of new lands far different from any they had seen or heard of before. From the way in which it was drawn out, they called this long and narrow land the "Long White Cloud." The northern portion of it was called the



By permission of *The New Zealand Government.*

THE CRATER OF WAIMANGU GEYSER, NEW ZEALAND.

(Area of water, 400 feet by 240 feet.)

"Fish," and it was said that their god of strength had brought this from the depths of the sea in order to provide a home for his people.

As these Maoris had gained their knowledge of the sea in lagoons surrounded by coral reefs, they were especially attracted to the extreme north of the new land, where their bravest made settlements in the "gills and tail of the fish," while the region of the central lakes had similar attractions for others.

They retained all the instincts of men who had been dwellers by the atolls or coral-girt isles. To them Lake Taupo was the sea, and the only word they possessed for river was one which meant lagoon-channel. Those who made their home among the hot lakes spoke of these waters as a chain of lagoons such as they had known in their atolls.

Auckland became for them practically an islet, and across its narrow neck they dragged their canoes, just as the Red Indians used to do when crossing the land which divided one stream from another.

South Island was valuable to the Maoris only as the place where they could obtain greenstone for the making of their weapons.

In their fancy that North Island had been fished up from the sea, they were reaching out to the truth that its western half is the result of volcanic forces. These have acted around Lake Taupo as a centre in such a way as to form there one of the most remarkable regions on the face of the globe. Nowhere else do the earth's internal forces manifest themselves in such a variety of ways. Their diversity, and still more their action, defy description. Boiling springs and mud volcanoes hiss and seethe, gurgle and splutter, boil and send forth steam.

Still more wonderful is the range of colour effects which are produced by the sulphur, alum and other elements and compounds contained in the waters. One gives to the terraces, banks and ledges a frosty, snow-white coating. The various greens range from tints of the deepest emerald to the lightest sea-green. The yellows include all shades from orange to pale primrose. The reds comprise all the hues that lie between rose-colour and crimson.

This region is the very heart of the land of the Maoris. Like all islanders, they show the greatest affection for their country. There is not a river or ford or tiny creek which they have not named; and mountain and spur, gully and lake, are all similarly favoured.

When British settlers began to bribe the natives to part with their land, a Native Land League was formed with the rallying cry: "The money we receive for our land is soon gone, the land remains with the Europeans for ever." Yet to the Europeans the most valuable sites were those which the Maoris valued least.

To civilized people, the land north of Auckland which resembled an archipelago, and the region around Lake Taupo, with its wonderful steam holes and boiling springs, was less suitable for settlement than the land of South Island. To understand the geography of this we must look at the remarkable range known as the Southern Alps.

Though their line can be traced through all three of the large islands which form New Zealand, it is in South Island that their influence can best be seen. In some respects they remind us of the Western Ghats of India. They are near to the western coasts, to which they give their steep, rocky character, bold bluffs, and lofty precipices. Rising up out of the ocean, like

the Western Ghats, the Southern Alps of New Zealand discharge the moisture-laden clouds that are brought to them by the North-west and South-west winds, and this abundant rainfall has nourished an unbroken and beautiful forest.

The two halves into which the island is divided by the line of the mountains are steep and narrow in the west, wide and of a gradual slope on the east. In fact, the Southern Alps determine the course of the streams, and the position of the valleys and plains. They also decide that the most important settlements shall be on the east coast.

Yet there is one striking difference between the hills of the western coast of India and those of New Zealand. The latter are more than twice as high as the former, and their highest barrier is always capped with snow. Mount Cook rises to a height of 12,000 feet, and in this land of special charms, one of the most striking is the combination of stern grandeur above, with the soft and luxuriant foliage down below.

CHAPTER LXXI.

British Settlers in New Zealand (Part I).

In many respects the land of the Long White Cloud was superior to the summer isles from which the Maoris had been wafted by the wind. Their new land had not the vegetation which adorns coral strands, yet its soil was capable of yielding crops in abundance, given some expenditure of toil.

It was also a land of sunshine and brightness, and though it was visited by clouds, these served only to make the sunshine more fully appreciated. The climate was not sufficiently hot to produce the sleepy languor of tropical



Photo by *New Zealand Government Tourist Department.*

WAIKATO.

lands, neither was it so severe as to chill all energy beyond that required to keep oneself warm. In a word, the islands were a second Britain, and, in climate and

position, reproduced the advantages of Britain in a superior degree.

The Maoris, when they visited the islands, found large numbers of flightless birds, but these they soon killed off. There were no four-footed animals in the woods, and for flesh-food the Maoris were reduced to eating at times their own kind. Captain Cook, on his visit, gave the natives some pigs, which multiplied to such an extent that they were allowed to run wild, and at the present day the wild bush pig is called a "Captain Cook." Together with the rat, the pig forms the only wild occupant of the New Zealand bush.

Missionaries were the first European settlers in the land, though traders used to come periodically to a harbour on Cook Strait, bringing with them supplies of guns, which they were able to exchange with the natives for the produce of the land.

The introduction of firearms among so warlike a people was disastrous. The means to do ill deeds caused ill deeds to be done, for the one thing which a Maori considers himself born for, is to fight. To him, it is his sole occupation, his only pastime, and it is said that the possession of firearms enabled them to kill each other off by thousands, and to eat the slain by hundreds.

The British Government was unwilling to interfere, believing that its list of responsibilities was already long enough, but in the end circumstances were too strong, and it was forced to take action.

The crisis came when a Company was formed to purchase land from the natives for the purpose of forming settlements. In 1840 they had bought from the natives a district as large as Ireland, for a small sum paid in muskets and gunpowder, red cotton

night-caps and pocket-handkerchiefs, looking-glasses and shaving-brushes, sealing-wax and Jews'-harps.

The Maoris hardly understood the meaning of what was intended, and, when they awoke to the situation, their attitude was so threatening that the Colonial Office was compelled to take charge of the land, and North Island was proclaimed for purposes of government as part of New South Wales.

The missionary stations had been fixed on the Bay of Islands so as to be near the centre of Maori life, but it was now seen that Auckland offered greater facilities for a capital city. In fact, a mistake had been made in following the Maoris in their choice of North Island, for South Island offered the best inducements to British settlers.

Thus, later, it was found desirable to shift the capital from Auckland to Wellington. Before this took place, however, the French had cast longing eyes on South Island and had sent out emigrants to occupy the Bay of Akaroa near Banks Peninsula.

They made the mistake, however, of putting in at Auckland, and thus disclosed to the British settlers their intentions. The British governor at once sent on in advance, and forestalled them, so that when the French emigrants reached their destination, they found the Union Jack already flying there. They made the best of the matter, however, and decided to establish their settlement under the British flag.

CHAPTER LXXII.

British Settlers in New Zealand (Part II).

It was difficult for the Maoris to understand how they could still hold their land and at the same time be

subject to the British Queen. One of the chiefs tried to explain the situation to his men in the following words: "The shadow will go to the Queen, but the substance will still remain in our own hands."

Yet the natives could not but feel that in most cases they had been the victims of sharp practice, and they began to band themselves together to resist any further encroachment on their possessions.

As we have seen, their fighting powers are very considerable, and the strenuous resistance they were able to offer checked the tide of emigration which had begun to flow steadily towards New Zealand.

The settlers at Port Nicholson, the town now known as Wellington, were formed into an armed camp. Earthworks were raised, and the occupants were drilled to form a militia. Agriculture and the ordinary business of the colony were brought to a standstill, and in the circumstances the Home Government decided to send out Captain George Grey to establish some sort of order.

At the same time, the people who wished to dispose of the land for settlements decided to adopt a plan which had succeeded in the colonising of the New England States of America. People of the same religious sympathies were encouraged to form themselves into separate provinces.

The plan was taken up in England and Scotland. The Free Church of Scotland sent their members to occupy the extreme south of the islands, where the names of Stewart Island, Roxburgh, Oban, Invercargill, and Dunedin (Edwin's dun or burgh) remind us of the Macs of the North.

The Church of England settlers made their head-quarters at Christchurch, where they were able to expand along the splendid sheep pastures at the rear and occupy the



Photo by *New Zealand Government Tourist Department.*

A KAURI LOG.

plains which they called the "Canterbury" Plains. This name has now become a household word in English homes on account of the large quantity of meat supplied by them.

The "Canterbury Pilgrims" on their side tried to make their homes thoroughly English. They began to grow a sward made up of English grasses. They sent over for English roses and English oaks and elms, so that visitors now can almost forget they are 12,000 miles from their Home Land. There is the English skylark to soar and sing overhead, and there are English blackbirds to come and help themselves to the cherries grown on trees brought from English orchards.

The discovery of gold in California and Australia enticed settlers away from New Zealand, and it became necessary to offer a reward of £500 to anyone who would discover a payable goldfield within the islands. Search showed that there was no need to leave New Zealand in order to find gold. Its own mineral wealth is very great, and in less than fifty years gold to the amount of £45,000,000 was raised.

Grey, by the exercise of very great firmness and patience, managed to allay the suspicions of the natives, and after eight years he was removed to Cape Colony to carry on his work of conciliation there.

His removal was a misfortune for New Zealand. Fresh troubles at once arose there. The natives began to fortify posts in the difficult country of North Island and were more than able to hold their own. Owing to the plentiful supply of timber, they were easily able to build formidable stockades, or "pahs," which could be taken only at tremendous sacrifices.

Grey was recalled, and he resolved to conquer the land by the construction of roads. In spite of the objections

of the Maoris, he held to this course, and the formation of roads, followed later by the construction of railroads, has completely reduced the land to a state of peace and tranquillity.

The Maoris submitted, and became accepted citizens of the British Empire, though their love of fighting is still



BRITISH ATTACK ON A MAORI STOCKADE.

manifested in their frequent appeals to the Law Courts. It is said that a Maori is never so truly happy at the present day, as when he has a big case pending. He will readily part with a thousand pounds' worth of land in order to fight for a piece which cannot possibly be worth more than £200. Yet with his love of fighting is combined intense chivalry, and his loyalty and lack of resentment must be held to cover a multitude of faults. When beaten in their wars, one of their chiefs expressed himself

in the following words: "We fought you, and fought you well, and now we are friends, ake, ake, ake" (for ever, for ever, for ever). The friendship of such is not only a credit to the giver, but is a priceless possession to the receiver.

CHAPTER LXXIII.

South Africa (Part I).

We again retrace our steps to review the time when men were seeking a new route to India. The Portuguese, cautiously feeling their way along the west coast of Africa, found at last a turning-point at the Cape, which became known as the Cape of Good Hope, and thence they made their way to India and the Far East. But they were loth to make any settlements on the inhospitable shores of South Africa, and placed their trading stations on the more attractive lands of the east of the continent.

The Dutch, who followed in their train, saw the importance of forming a naval station at the Cape, where their ships might obtain supplies of fresh meat and vegetables on their outward and homeward journeys, and where their sick sailors might recruit in hospitals. The Dutch East India Company, therefore, sent out some servants, who were to do the Company's work, but who were not to be allowed to act as free colonists, able to look after their own interests. The station near the Cape of Good Hope was marked by a huge square mass of granite rock, whose shape gave it the name of Table Mountain. From this mountain proceeded a spur, which formed, with the mainland, two bays, Table Bay on the north, and False Bay on the south.

The Dutch servants of the East India Company had little difficulty in establishing a foothold on Table Bay,

for the only occupants of the land were men belonging to the feeble yellow-skinned races, the Bushmen and Hottentots, who wandered over the plains which stretched out in the rear. But far away to the east, beyond the great Barrier Range with its peaks varying from 10,000 to 12,000 feet in height, dwelt the fierce and strong Bantu people, a dark-skinned race which had driven out the yellow-skinned men from the most desirable parts of the land; for whereas the lands to the west suffered from insufficient rain and were dry and sandy, those on the east were blessed with an ample rainfall, and their fertility was shown by thick forests and luxuriant grasses.

Herein can be read the explanation of much of the later history of South Africa. When the later Dutch settlers began to arrive, free from the restrictions and the oversight of their East India Company, they found in the Hottentots a race incapable of resistance, and readily reduced to slavery, while the Bantu race, under the names of Kaffirs, Zulus, Basutos, and Matabeles, proved themselves the most terrible foes the Europeans have ever had to face.

The word Kaffir means "unbeliever," and was first given by the Moorish traders, who found that their own religious zeal, as Mohammedans, was of no avail against the dark-skinned race of men, as cunning and courageous as the Red Indians of North America, yet differing from them in that their contact with the white man, instead of reducing their numbers, seemed to enable them to increase more rapidly. It has been remarked that, while in North America and Australia both brain and muscle are white, in South Africa the brain is white and the muscle is black.

Like the colonies of North America, the colony in South Africa became a home for those who fled from the

religious troubles at home. In 1689, there arrived at the Cape some 200 French Protestants or Huguenots, who, like the Pilgrim Fathers, had first fled to Holland, and then set out to make new homes in a distant land. To their surprise they found in their new homes at the Cape a soil and a climate entirely suited to the cultivation of the vine. Their own sunny land of France had always been noted for its vineyards, but their new settlement had equally warm valleys in its western districts which surpassed their old haunts in suitability for wine production. The west of Cape Colony became a little France, where even to-day the traveller can be reminded of its earliest settlers in such names as Languedoc, La Rochelle, Champagne, and the Rhone.

CHAPTER LXXIV.

Slow Growth.

By the end of the eighteenth century, the white population in South Africa had increased to about 25,000 souls, while in the same period the population of the English colonies on the Atlantic seaboard had reached 4,000,000. This slowness of growth was due to three main causes. First, the colony was looked upon as belonging to the Dutch East India Company, and, as such, was to be worked as the property of the shareholders. In fact, it was almost as if the lands of the Hudson Bay Company had been transferred to sunnier climes, and then managed on the same principles.

The settlers were forbidden to trade with other countries, even with their own kinsmen over the seas. Their office in life was simply to supply passing ships with vegetables from their gardens, with fruit from their

orchards, with poultry from their yards, and with the cattle which they could obtain in large numbers from the Hottentots.

The formation of the land necessitated slow development likewise. In some respects it resembled Australia, with its fringe of habitable coast and forbidding interior ; and, while the British were winning their Empires in India and America, the Dutch at the Cape were slowly filtering through the Kloof, or " cleft " in the Drakenstein Range, on their way to the plain along the south coast.

This route led them, in time, to the stronghold of the Bantu race on the east, and, as these men were powerful enough to hold their ground, an arrangement had to be made, whereby the boundary between the white and black races should be the Great Fish River. A resident magistrate was also placed at Graaff Reinet, at the foot of the Sneeuw Berg Mountains, so that the settlers in the North-east of the colony might be afforded protection.

But, though the way of the settlers eastwards was not barred by the savages till the Great Fish River was reached, they had to meet wild animals in abundance. The troops of elephants that once ranged through the district are called to mind in the name of the Oliphant River. Lions were also a constant source of terror. Beside the animals which were dangerous foes, there were others, such as the eland and the springbok, which formed dainty food for the hunters ; and, altogether, the presence of game afforded such practice with the rifle that the Dutch, or Boers, as they came to be called, became the finest of marksmen.

Beyond the coast-strip rose the hills, which formed the southern wall of a plateau, terminated on its northern edge by another range of hills, bounding a second plateau

known as the Great Karroo. This marvellous district is a semi-desert, and yet after abundant rains is as fertile as the banks of the Nile.

Even the longest drought does not kill the schaap-bosch (sheep bush), and it is therefore a good grazing ground. Yet the bosch is then the only sign of plant life above the dusty ground. There is not a green leaf to be seen, not a blade of grass, and the beds of the rivers are completely dried up.

With the advent of the rain all this is changed, and the transformation of the scene is nothing less than magical. The grass and the blossoms spring into life, and the whole surface becomes a huge green carpet bespangled with flowers of every hue. In fact, at such times, Cape Colony is one large flower garden, with its lilies and geraniums as plentiful as the English buttercups and daisies.

The climate for nine months in the year is one of the pleasantest Europeans can enjoy, and they can work at all times in the open without discomfort ; the nights also, are cool and refreshing. Thus it was a great mistake to introduce slaves to undertake duties which could be performed by white men. The people of South Africa had not the excuse which those in the West Indies and other tropical lands could offer, and in its later history South Africa paid a big price for the mistake that had been made.

CHAPTER LXXV.

Explorations.

WHILE the Dutch were slowly working their way from Cape Town on the west to the quarters of the strong Bantu race on the east, curiosity in Europe was being

aroused about the more northerly portions of the continent. In Great Britain, a feeling against the slave trade was growing, and it is a natural step from this that humane people should seek to stop the traffic in slaves. Attention was consequently directed to the West of Africa.

An association was formed for the promotion of African exploration, a body which to-day is known as the Royal Geographical Society, and, under the direction of this body, Mungo Park was dispatched to trace the course of the Niger. His plans were to proceed along the river Gambia till he struck the course of the Niger, and then follow its line to the sea.

No better illustration of the value of rivers can be found than the story of the part they have played in the opening up of Africa. It is not too much to say that, had the Orange River afforded a passage into the land, the whole history of South Africa would have been different. As it was, its interior was a locked-up casket, to be reached only after painful journeys by traders and trekkers in their ox-waggons.

For centuries the course of the Niger had been enveloped in mystery, like the sources of the Nile. Europeans who traded along the shores of the Mediterranean heard reports of a mighty river beyond the limits of the Great Desert, and wonderful stories of a city called Timbuctoo, the focus or centre of caravan routes; but there were conflicting accounts as to whether the river flowed from east to west, or from west to east, though the assurances of the negroes always agreed that the general course was towards the rising sun.

Mungo Park, in spite of the most terrible hardships, had all but accomplished his task of finding the termination of the river, when he was attacked by natives and

killed, with the whole of his party, at the Rapids of Busa. In the early part of the nineteenth century, the brothers Lander traced the Niger from Busa to the sea, and this was at once followed by the placing of light-draught steamers on the river, and the pushing of trade along its course into the interior.

Some years before the explorations of Mungo Park, James Bruce started out to trace the Nile to its source.



Photo by *Frith & Co.*

THE FIRST CATARACT OF THE NILE.

He went up the river to the First Cataract, and then crossed over to the coast of the Red Sea. Making his way to Massowa, the port of Abyssinia, he received permission from the Emperor of that land to proceed to the source of the Blue Nile. This seemed to him the head of the waters of the Egyptian river, and he traced the stream to its junction with the White Nile at Khartoum. On his return to England, he pointed out

the importance of a British foothold in Egypt, as being a sort of half-way house on the overland route to India and the East.

About twenty years later, these ideas were more forcibly borne home to the British, by the action of Napoleon Bonaparte, who transported an army to Egypt, as the first step in a scheme for the conquest of India. His plans were frustrated at the Battle of the Nile, in which Lord Nelson destroyed the French fleet; but the incident served to show to Britons their danger, not only on the side of Egypt, but also on the side of the Cape.

The latter was the half-way house of the water route to India, and its possession by a hostile power would provide a base from which British merchant ships could easily be attacked as they passed to and fro between Britain and her Great Dependency. As the French had at this time allied themselves with the Dutch, it was possible to send an expedition to False Bay, and deprive the Dutch of their possessions in that part of the world.

CHAPTER LXXVI.

The British Occupation of the Cape.

THE British had managed to take Canada only after prolonged and strenuous fighting. The Cape fell into their hands almost without a struggle, for the Dutch settlers, who might have offered decided resistance, welcomed the arrival of the British as deliverers rather than as foes. The restraints under which they lived were such that no other rule promised such cramping restrictions, and they were intensely eager to have the opportunity of following their own immediate interests.

It would appear as though the new subjects of the

British Crown would, out of very gratitude for their deliverance, become the most loyal and praiseworthy colonists of the Empire. But their past history had been entirely against them. Scattered up and down in their homesteads, they had seen little of each other, but, still worse, they had become isolated from the civilized world. While all Europe was being flooded with pamphlets and writings in the era which found vent in the French Revolution, the Cape had not in its possession a single printing press.

Of the great changes which were passing over the world on account of the Industrial Revolution it knew absolutely nothing. With the exception of the wealthier inhabitants in Cape Town and its adjoining district, the settlers possessed no books beside their Bibles and Hymn Books, and these they had brought with them on their voyage from Europe. Moreover, they had grown up nursing resentment against a government which used them for its own ends.

Such were the people whom the British Government had taken under its charge, and whom it proposed to govern according to the latest nineteenth century ideas. The problem, difficult though it was, might have been solved in time, for Time is the greatest of all healers and reconcilers ; but there was the added difficulty of dealing with the natives. The yellow-skinned races whom the Dutch had found in possession of the western portions of the Cape had diminished in number, either retiring into the desert, or dying off, as most native races have done when they have come into contact with the white man.

But on the east were the Bantus, increasing and multiplying with the greatest rapidity, who, instead of retiring before the white settlers, stood prepared to resist



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

CAPE TOWN FROM SIGNAL HILL.

their advance. Thus South Africa combined in itself the double problems which Britain had been called upon to face separately in India and Canada.

The French Revolution had stamped in blood its teachings of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," and though most of the Britons refused to accept these doctrines in their entirety as taught by the revolutionaries, yet they agreed that in the eyes of the law the black man should be regarded as the equal of the white. As a consequence of this, a movement was set on foot to abolish the slave trade; and this step was followed later by an attempt to abolish slavery itself.

In its attitude towards slavery, Britain was in advance of the rest of the world, and its ideas were furthest removed from the Colony where the settlers regarded slavery as one of Nature's ordinances. It was the missionaries who first took up the cause of the natives against the Dutch.

Among the most honoured of these pioneers was Robert Moffat, who had an experience which will illustrate the contempt of the Dutch for the black man. Moffat had been entertained at a farmhouse by a hospitable Dutchman, and, after supper, preparations were made for family worship. The big Bible and the Hymn Books were brought out. The householder and his children were seated in readiness.

"But where are the servants?" asked Moffat. "Servants! What do you mean?" inquired the farmer. "I mean the Hottentots, of whom I saw so many on your farm." "Hottentots! Do you really mean such? Let me go then to the mountains and call the baboons, if you want a congregation of that sort. Or stop! I have it. My sons! call the dogs that lie in front of the door; they will do."

CHAPTER LXXVII.

Kaffir Wars.

At the time when Cape Colony was placed under British rule, the eastern border ran along the line of the Great Fish River. But the Bantu population was not content with the country between the Drakensberg Mountains and the Indian Ocean; and they began to cross the boundary in order to establish themselves within the lands of the colony. Besides this, they came again and again to steal the live stock which the colonists were engaged in rearing.

Such disregard for their neighbours' rights necessarily led to war, the first of these Kaffir Wars breaking out in 1811. Colonel Graham, who was in charge of a combined force of soldiers and burghers, drove the trespassers out of the colony, and then established a series of military posts for the greater security of the colonists. Sir John Cradock, the Governor at that time, proposed also to make a sort of "no man's land" between the Sunday and the Fish Rivers, so as still better to screen the possessions of the border; and it is interesting to note that Grahamstown and Cradock still record the names of the men who had been selected to manage affairs at this time, Grahamstown itself coming into existence so that it might provide supplies for the garrisons of the military stations.

It was found, however, that this plan of holding the natives in check was expensive and unsatisfactory; and Lord Charles Somerset, the next Governor, tried the plan which had proved successful in dealing with the natives in India and Canada, that is, through alliances with the natives themselves. This brought further troubles, for it aroused strife between tribe and tribe.

After the second Kaffir War, it was arranged that the Kaffirs should withdraw some distance from the Fish River, because the bush on its eastern bank afforded too convenient a cover for the natives who wished to be marauders.

It was on this occasion that Lord Charles Somerset was struck with the beauty and fertility of the lands just west of the Great Fish River. He therefore sent home to England the suggestion that a colony of British settlers should be established there. The idea was a timely one. The close of the long wars with Napoleon had thrown many men out of employment. The change in the conditions of industry had substituted machine for hand labour, and many workers were glad to hear of new homes in distant lands under the British flag.

Some 90,000 persons offered themselves as settlers in Cape Colony, and a selection of 5,000 was made. These were placed on the land between the Bushman and Fish Rivers, and in honour of their native country the settlement was called Albany.

Port Elizabeth, on a safe harbour of Algoa Bay, became the entrance to this part of the colony, which has ever since been marked for its strongly British character.

As may readily be imagined, the earliest years of the settlement were years of stress and hardship. With insufficient knowledge of the land and its climate, the settlers depended on crops which failed them ; and the floods which followed the dry season swept away their houses and cattle, so that they were only saved from complete extinction by the help rendered by their brethren in Britain and India.

After they had found a way to adapt themselves to their new country, the fruits of their industry and trade were

always in danger from the natives, whose heaviest shocks of invasion inevitably descended on those nearest the frontier.

Yet the people at home were inclined to bestow their sympathy on the native race, and to consider that the black men were those whose rights were in greatest need of safeguards, and this false impression involved costly sacrifices in after years.

CHAPTER LXXVIII.

The Great Trek.

As we have already seen, the French settlers found in the Cape a suitable soil and a genial climate for the cultivation of the grape vine ; but the land lent itself in a far greater degree to the rearing of sheep, and one of the chief services rendered to the Colony by Lord Charles Somerset was the introduction of the merino sheep from Europe, and the establishment of Government farms for the production of fine wool.

In this way was founded the wool trade, which has continued up to the present day as the staple agricultural industry of South Africa. But Africa has never been allowed to develop its resources without hindrance and without check. The wars between the white race and the black had already produced a feeling of insecurity, and to this was now added an estrangement between the British and the Dutch.

The differences on the question of setting free the slaves became acute, and unfortunately, though the British were right in their general aim, they were unwise in the way in which they tried to effect their reform.

It had been estimated that the value of the slaves in the colony amounted to £3,000,000, but towards

this only £1,247,000 was allotted for compensation by the British Government. Moreover, the claims for the money had to be presented by the owners in London. There was, consequently, need for the employment of agents, and this added to the irritation produced by the other questions.



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

A WAGGON CROSSING A SOUTH AFRICAN RIVER.

(After the rainy season, great care is required in crossing these streams, the under-currents of which are often very strong and endanger safe passage.)

In some cases, the dishonesty of the agents deprived the more ignorant farmers of a further portion of their just dues; and the feeling of injustice developed into a sense of deep-seated wrongs. In addition to the direct losses, there was, of necessity, a dislocation of the country's industries through the drastic change.

Sir Benjamin Durban was the Governor sent out from

England to arrange for the carrying out of the Slave Emancipation Act, and to provide for the better protection of the farmers on the eastern borders. Hardly had he got settled at the Cape, when he had to face a most formidable invasion of the Bantus. Ten thousand Kaffirs swept over the frontier, destroying every home within reach, murdering every inhabitant they could find, and driving away every head of cattle.

When peace was restored, Durban proposed to compensate the settlers for the losses they had sustained. But he found that the Home Government had no sympathy for their case. In fact, it was inclined to take sides with the Kaffirs, and even to hint that the colonists were the aggressors and had provoked the war for their own ends.

The position was, therefore, most unsatisfactory. While at the Cape the men who were in touch with the Kaffirs, and knew them well, regarded them as robbers, murderers, and people on whom no reliance could be placed, people in England chose to regard them as members of a race deserving of pity, and as providing a useful field for missionary enterprise. But to hope that the colonists whose homes had been destroyed and whose cattle had been stolen would passively accept such a situation, was to expect figs to grow on thorns and to look for grapes on bramble bushes.

The Boers in the east decided on a course in which they were assisted by the character and extent of the country. They made up their minds to withdraw themselves from a Government at whose hands they had received such scant consideration. For the plan they had in view, the climate of the land and their previous mode of existence had entirely fitted them. Their waggons, covered with canvas cloth, gave them what accommodation they wanted for the conveyance

of their meagre household goods, and afforded also as much protection as they needed from the weather. Thus, setting out with their flocks and herds, like the patriarchs of old, they bent their course northwards to the lands beyond the Orange River, and eastwards to the land beyond the Drakensberg Mountains which was known as Natal.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

Pioneer Trekkers.

It is so usual to value the privilege of living under the British flag, that it comes as a surprise to find the Dutch farmers of South Africa retiring into wild and insecure districts in order to remove themselves from all traces of British rule. They had the same spirit that had impelled their forefathers in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to fight to the death.

To resist what the latter had considered tyranny, they had made the greatest sacrifices. They withstood the might of Philip II of Spain, and did not hesitate to lay their land under water, so that it should not fall into the hands of Louis XIV of France.

With the same spirit of determination, many of the Dutch in South Africa were willing to risk the dangers arising from savage men and wild beasts rather than remain under a government which appeared to favour the coloured man at the expense of the white.

The line of the Orange River was supposed to mark the limit of the British rule, and the first pioneers directed their course to the land north of the mother colony. They were already familiar with the district, for on occasions, in times of drought, they had gone there in search of pasturage for their cattle.

To those who came from the dry Karroo of the south it seemed a land of greenness and plenty. Yet it was only such in comparison with the Karroo, for the steep mountain chain bounding it on the east cuts off from it the rain-bearing winds of the Indian Ocean.

The greatest difficulties the trekkers had to face came from the savages, who resented the advance of the white man. One party of Boers who crossed the Orange River under the leadership of Hendrik Potgieter was attacked by the Matabele warriors, and would have been destroyed but for the timely arrival of assistance under Gert Maritz.

But the Boers were not content with merely extricating themselves from their difficulties. They resolved to carry war into the enemy's camp, attacked the chief kraal of the Matabele, and inflicted on them a severe defeat. The memory of this victory for the Dutch is contained in the name of *Win*-burg for the camp which was formed by the white men on the Vet River ; while the work of Potgieter is recorded in the town of Potchefstroom.

To Winburg, as a centre, other bands of emigrants made their way under Pieter Retief, a man of higher standing than any of the previous leaders. Later, Pretorius took up the command. Both Pieter and Pretorius showed themselves capable of driving back the Matabele and breaking the power of the Zulus, so that in their honour were named the towns of Pietermaritzburg and Pretoria.

Their method of fighting is worthy of notice. Their rough and ready fortresses were waggons arranged in the form of a square, the poles of one waggon being firmly secured under the perch of the next. Branches of thorny mimosas were then wattled in under each waggon, so that no entrance into the enclosure could be forced save with the greatest difficulty.

Just as the waggons could be used to withstand attacks, so the skill of the farmers in shooting and riding enabled them to turn the attack upon their foes. Few against many, they were ready at all times to face the savages, and through their skill and bravery "took the land of the heathen in possession."

CHAPTER LXXX.

Natal.

We have now seen how the white men, starting from Cape Town, advanced eastwards and northwards, and it is now time to show how the course of their advance corresponds with the slope of the land. The Zambesi may be taken as the northern boundary of South Africa, a land which rises by a series of steps from the sea to the interior. But the rise in surface is not only from south to north, it also proceeds from west to east till it meets the line of the Drakensbergs.

These mountains are like a mighty wall, which, from its height and its position, has an all-important influence on the rainfall. Westward, the land suffers from a scarcity of water, as is shown by the fact that the many tributaries of the Orange River are, for a good part of the year, almost waterless. One large tract is known as the Kalahari desert, where rain is almost unknown and rivers entirely absent.

East of the Drakensbergs is a land extremely well watered. Numerous streams take their rise in the hills, and rush through deep gorges to the sea. The strength of the plant life is shown in the forests of excellent timber, and the smiling land challenges comparison with the fairest on earth. The coast belt is adorned with tropical vegetation, for the warm Mozambique current gives it a

higher temperature than that due to its distance from the equator.

The difference in climate and productions between west and east was shown also in their inhabitants. The Kalahari was the refuge of outcasts from the more favoured lands. It was the home of wandering bands of Bushmen and a few Hottentots.

The fertile, well-watered lands beyond the Drakensbergs supported the finest and strongest natives, who were the most warlike and the most difficult to tame. A portion of this land is known as Natal, a name given to it because it was discovered by Portuguese navigators on Christmas Day, 1497.

Retief, one of the early trekkers, who took possession of the land between the Vet and the Vaal Rivers, recognized the greater value of the land across the Drakensberg Range, and obtained permission from Dingaan, the Zulu king, to settle in it.

Scarcely had the arrangements for this been completed, when the Zulus treacherously attacked the emigrants, and destroyed them all with the exception of a few who had had timely warning of the savage onslaught. The site of this sad incident is shown in the name of Weenen, "the place of weeping."

The Boers decided to teach Dingaan a severe lesson, and Pretorius, a leader noted for extreme caution, inflicted a crushing defeat on a force of 10,000 Zulus on December 16th, a day from that time forward observed yearly by the Boers as "Dingaan's Day," while the scene of the desperate conflict has since been known as the Blood River.

The Boers proceeded to build the town of Pietermaritzburg, and in the next few years broke the power of the Zulus in Natal, thus establishing their claim to the colony.

The British Government were now undecided whether to take the new land under their control or not. On the one hand, there were people who were lamenting that the Empire was already too large. On the other, there were those who saw the danger of allowing unfriendly people a secure position on the coast.

At length the Home Government resolved to place the settlers in Natal under British protection, though some sort of self-government was promised them. The Boers, who still hated the British rule, determined to go back over the Drakensbergs, leaving some of their comrades under the new conditions. To meet the wishes of the latter, it was agreed that Natal should be kept distinct from the Cape, and that the government should be made so simple that the Boers would be able to understand it and thus trust it.

Later times have added another reason besides racial jealousy to make Natal differ from Cape Colony. Natal's hot climate has necessitated the importation of coolies from India for employment in the sugar and tea plantations. This makes the "Garden of South Africa" resemble India in some of its features of government.

In addition, in Natal the proportion of South African natives to white people is much larger than in any other district. It is thus found necessary to ring a "curfew bell" at 9 o'clock, and to require the Kaffirs to remain in their homes after that hour.

CHAPTER LXXXI.

Other Settlements of the Trekkers.

THE retirement of the Boers from Natal strengthened their settlements on the west of the Drakensbergs, and the districts around Potchestroom and Winburg were



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

GENERAL VIEW OF BLOEMFONTEIN.

in a position to declare themselves independent of the British Government.

For the time being, the British did not contest this point, but, as one constant source of trouble between the British and the Dutch was the treatment of the native races, the Home Government contented itself with maintaining the rights of the Griquas on the west and the Basutos on the east, and entering into treaties with them.

While the Griquas, or half-breeds, were on the northern boundary of Cape Colony, in the region of the Orange river, the Basutos were the mountaineers of South Africa, the mountains giving them peace and security.

This arrangement served to embitter still further the Dutch emigrants. Black men were to be treated as the allies of the British Government, while the Boers were to be regarded as rebellious subjects. To the former were extended friendship and protection, to the latter were addressed empty requests for a return to their allegiance. Pretorius wrote later, "Are we then worse, are we more contemptible, than the coloured population?"

This plan of "treaty states" was doomed to fail, and Sir Harry Smith was sent out from England to make a change. All sections in South Africa welcomed the new governor, whose name is now commemorated in the town of Harrismith. One of his first acts was to extend the British authority over the natives on the eastern border of Cape Colony, to form a new province and call it British Kaffraria.

Next, he proceeded to the land north of the Orange River, in order to persuade the Griquas and Basutos to give up the rights which they had under their treaties with the British, and to receive in exchange money payments. Having effected what he wished for in this direction, he proclaimed the territory between the Vaal

and the Orange Rivers to be a part of the British dominions, with the name of the Orange River Sovereignty.

Leaving a garrison at Bloemfontein, Sir Harry Smith returned to Cape Town. The new arrangements were, however, too late. The Boer farmers to the north of the Vaal River objected to the extension of the British territory, and invaded the Sovereignty. They drove the British over the Orange River to Colesberg.

Sir Harry Smith advanced northwards again and defeated the Boers at Bloomplaats (the place of flowers). After this defeat, the most bitter of the Boers retired across the Vaal, leaving the Sovereignty to be occupied by fresh emigrants from Cape Colony and by the Dutch people who were not strongly opposed to British rule.

Troubles rarely come singly. In addition to the difficulties on the north, others came on the east. The Kaffirs started their "eighth war," the longest and the most bloody the Cape was ever engaged in; it was during this war that the transport *Birkenhead* was wrecked off Danger Point, 1852.

The losses suffered by the British, both in men and money, produced at home a feeling of weariness and impatience, and people began to ask whether the possession of South Africa was worth it all. This time of hesitation was seized on by Pretorius, the leader of the Boers beyond the Vaal, to demand for his men an acknowledgment of their independence, and the withdrawal of the sentence of outlawry which had been passed upon them.

It looked as though the lands of the Sovereignty might be saved in this way, and Sir Harry Smith agreed to recognize the men of the Transvaal as the South African Republic.

No sooner was the war with the Kaffirs on the eastern border concluded than the British became involved in a dispute with the Basutos, who had made raids on the cattle of the settlers in the Sovereignty.

To penetrate into Basutoland is a most difficult task. South Africa rises, plateau after plateau, till the innermost one is reached on which stands Basutoland. Then the land proceeds, like the billowy sea, in successive mountain waves, till the summits of the Drakensbergs are reached, 11,000 feet above the ocean.

Basutoland is thus the Switzerland of South Africa, and the British Generals in their fighting with the Basutos sustained considerable losses. Such were the difficulties of the situation that the General in charge reported it would be necessary to maintain a permanent garrison of 2,000 men at Bloemfontein if the Sovereignty were to be retained.

This scared the Home Government, and it was decided to allow the formation of another Republican Government to be known as the Orange Free State. Thus the problem in South Africa had gradually become more and more complex. In addition to the constant friction between the white and the coloured races, the difficulties between the white races had been immensely increased through the establishment of the five distinct Governments, with conflicting interests, of Cape Colony, Natal, British Kaffraria, the South African Republic, and the Orange Free State.

CHAPTER LXXXII.

The Rule of Sir George Grey.

THE impatience of the British at the constant upheavals in South Africa was shown not only in the grant of independence to the two Dutch Republics, but also in the decision

to grant further powers of self-government to Cape Colony itself. The Home Government, in fact, seemed determined to abandon the position which rightly belonged to Britain as the sovereign power in South Africa, the power which was necessary to direct the lines of European colonization, and decide the treatment that should be meted out to the native races.

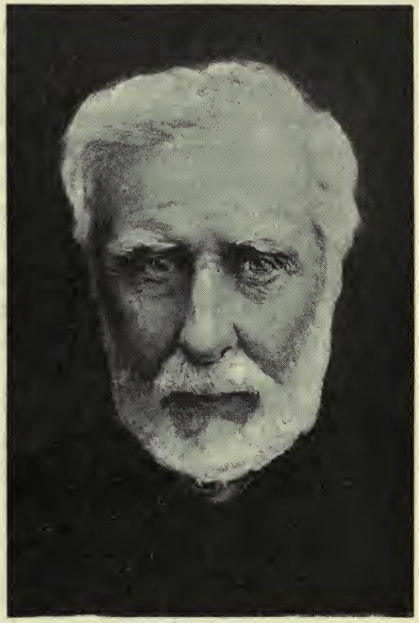


Photo by *Emery Walker.*

SIR GEORGE GREY.

Yet it was recognized that, with the policy of non-interference, the task of safeguarding British interests in South Africa demanded a man of exceptional foresight and firmness, and the man who seemed marked out for the post was Sir George Grey, the ruler who had met with such success in his dealings with the Maoris of New Zealand.

Sir George Grey soon realized that what he called the "dismemberment of South Africa" was a huge blunder and could only land Great Britain in further difficulties.

The Bantu tribes were roughly divided into those which were engaged in military and those which were engaged in industrial pursuits. The former had taken

possession of the most fertile regions between the Drakensbergs and the Indian Ocean. The latter had to content themselves with the plateau lands west of the great mountain ranges.

The military Bantus, such as the Zulus, the Matabeles, and the various Kaffir tribes, devoted themselves wholly to war. The industrial Bantus, such as the Mashonas, the Bechuanas, and the Basutos, cultivated the fields.

There was always the danger of trouble arising between the military and the peaceable Bantus. There was always the danger that the military Bantus would band themselves against the Europeans. There were also clear indications that the stubborn Boers would seize the opportunity of defying the Imperial Government and of appealing for assistance to their kinsmen in Cape Colony itself.

Sir George Grey therefore proposed the remedy which had been found to heal the differences in Canada, namely, federation. Cape Colony, Natal, and the Free State were to be united for the purpose of making laws. Though many people "on the spot" approved of Grey's plan, the Home Government refused to support it, and it had to be abandoned.

Foiled in this direction, Grey was still able to do yeoman service to his country in other ways. His period of rule in South Africa included the time when Britain was engaged in the Crimean War and in maintaining her hold on India during the Indian Mutiny.

Strange events happened in Kaffraria, where a chief had devised a crafty plot to rouse the whole Bantu race to take up arms once more against the white man. It was reported that a Kaffir girl had received a message from the spirit world that on the morning of 18th February, 1857, a hurricane would sweep the world, and that the forefathers of the Kaffirs would rise from

their graves, bringing with them countless herds of cattle, and would sweep the white men into the sea.

But in order to obtain this aid from the spirit world, the living must show their faith by destroying their cattle and ceasing to sow their fields with corn. In this way the crafty chief hoped that the pangs of hunger would drive a frenzied host across the eastern border of the Colony.

The appointed day arrived, but there was no hurricane, and no sign of the herds of cattle. Nay, further, the thousands who crossed the border appeared not as assailants but as suppliants. It was estimated that at least 25,000 Kaffirs died of starvation.

But there were also lasting results of the disaster. The thousands who came to beg for help were settled in the Colony, and formed the advance-guard of the Bantu people who are to be found westward of the Fish River. The population of British Kaffraria had been reduced by starvation and emigration from 105,000 to 38,000, and the gaps there were filled by men from the regiments raised in Germany for service in the Crimean War, and by farmers from Cape Colony, who were given lands on condition of military service.

Another crisis came to Sir George Grey about the same time. British troops had called at the Cape on their way home from China, when news came of the Indian Mutiny. On his own responsibility he sent them and other soldiers on to India, and it was with the help of these men that Sir Colin Campbell relieved Lucknow.

Thus it is probable that Sir George Grey "saved India." When it was necessary to strip his country of British soldiers, Grey made an appeal to the Kaffir Chiefs, telling them that the Queen needed her soldiers in India, and asking them to give their word that they would not

cause any trouble. Such was their confidence in the Governor that they gave the required pledge, and honoured it to the letter.

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

Imperial Supremacy (Part I).

THE time when the British recognized the independence of the two Boer States and adopted the policy of non-interference indicates the low-water mark of British reputation in South Africa ; but it soon became apparent that the British could not stand idly by, when interests common to all the Europeans were at stake. In 1868 they found it necessary to interfere between the Basutos and the Burghers of the Orange Free State.

It is true the Basutos were unruly neighbours, but when the Burghers proposed to deprive them of the richest part of their country, danger threatened the peace of the whole land. The dispersal of even a portion of the Basutos would have meant serious trouble for the state where they attempted to settle, and these circumstances induced the British to take Basutoland under their protection and make it a British possession.

Just before this, however, an important discovery had been made which was to alter the whole aspect of South African affairs. In 1867, on a farm in the north of Cape Colony, a trader saw a child playing with what appeared to be a brilliant pebble. It proved to be a diamond worth £500. Further search showed that the banks of the Vaal contained many such "pebbles." A "rush" at once followed, and soon 10,000 men had assembled on the Vaal. Three years later, a great find of diamonds was made twenty miles south of the river, where the town of Kimberley now stands.

All sorts and conditions of men, tempted by dreams of untold wealth, wended their way thither, and the slow-going Dutch farmers again found that they were denied the solitude they sought. Most of the diggers were of British race ; most of the money for working the mines came from British sources ; and as the British power was the only one which could safeguard law and order, a claim was advanced to the new land, and a new province called Griqualand West was carved out.

The Orange Free State objected that the land belonged to them, and were able to make good their claim ; but in consideration of the renunciation of their rights they were paid a sum of £90,000. The incident is noteworthy as showing that the British were at last beginning to recognise their duties as the paramount power in the land.

The dispute about the territory was more important than at first sight appeared, because in it was involved the larger question of access to the interior from the South.

Two far-reaching results of the diamond discovery may be mentioned. The first was the construction of railways. Cape Town and Port Elizabeth were soon linked up with Kimberley, and the improved means of communication began at once to associate and bring together what had been parted by the blunders of statesmen.

Another result was the revival of the question of the relations between the white and the coloured races. The good wages paid for the rough work in the diamond mines attracted natives from all parts of South Africa. They usually stayed for a short period in their new quarters, and then returned to their homes to spend their savings.

But while they were allowed to purchase fire-arms in Griqualand West, those who returned to Natal had to

deliver them up, for it would have been courting trouble to allow them to carry fire-arms in a district where they far outnumbered the Europeans.

This led to difficulties ; but far worse was in store. The Zulus, seeing the disunion between the European states, resolved to dispute with them the mastery of the land. They first directed their efforts against the settlers of the Transvaal, and as the danger threatened to "eat up" the Boers, the British came to their aid, annexed the Transvaal, and proceeded to destroy the Zulu power.

No sooner was the danger from the Zulus removed, than the Boers of the Transvaal raised an agitation for the recovery of their independence, and the Home Government, fearing that the quarrel might involve the whole of the Dutch population of South Africa, weakly gave in.

But history was to repeat itself. Just as the discovery of diamonds had forced the British Government to assert its authority over a portion of the Orange Free State, so the discovery of gold in the Transvaal caused the Home Government to see what a mistake it had made in again allowing the Boers their independence.

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

Imperial Supremacy (Part II).

On the west of the Transvaal is the district known as Bechuanaland, a dry region, where, except for one season in the year, streams are altogether absent. It was the abode of peaceable native tribes, but, after the Transvaal had regained its independence in 1881, the Boers began to advance claims to the land by virtue of the defeat which they had inflicted on the Matabeles nearly fifty years before.

The land was not valuable for its own sake, but rather because it was the "door" to Central Africa. Again Great Britain had to assert her claim as the paramount authority, and to come forward to establish a Protectorate over Bechuanaland. The natives were to be allowed to retain possession of their land, and by reason of her constant desire to do justice to the coloured races, Great Britain established a strong claim to be considered the supreme power in South Africa. Her position would probably never have been disputed had it not been for the quite unexpected discovery of gold on the Rand.

The year which followed the establishment of the Bechuanaland Protectorate witnessed the discovery of gold, and a large mining population soon collected at Johannesburg, the city of the golden reefs. The effect was to transform the land from seventeenth century ideas to those which are most up to date.

Previous to the finding of diamonds and gold, the settlers were wholly engaged in different branches of farming. We have seen how Lord Charles Somerset had promoted the sheep industry, which was particularly well suited to the dry climate of the Cape.

In the same district of Albany, where the wool industry thrived, ostrich farming was established, because of the discovery of an artificial way of hatching ostrich eggs, whereby the settlers were able to tame these naturally savage birds.

Another industry, that of mohair, was introduced, when it was found that the land was a suitable home for the Angora goats from Asia Minor. But even the development of farming was slow, because the broken and irregular surface of the land rendered travelling extremely difficult. The ox-waggon was the usual

conveyance, and was typical of the movements in general.

With the discovery of mineral wealth, old ways were changed as if by magic. Railways were constructed to bring Johannesburg into direct communication with Cape Town and Port Elizabeth, the western and the eastern entrances into the land. Two years later, a line connected Delagoa Bay to Pretoria, and thence to the Rand.

Johannesburg became almost at one bound a wonderful town, busy and pleasure-loving, where men made money fast and spent it lavishly. The wealth which accrued to the Boers afforded them the coveted opportunity of contesting the question of supremacy with the British, and this opportunity they readily grasped.

But though the Boers were most skilful in the methods of South African warfare, which has so often afforded repeated readings of the story of David and Goliath, yet they had failed to calculate aright the power which must necessarily come to a nation that holds command of the sea, and is loyally supported by its sons in its colonies.

In the great South African war which followed, Canada and Australia came to the aid of the mother land, and fresh troops were constantly poured into South Africa till all resistance was crushed down.

In the final result, the Dutch colonies lost their independence, and were joined to the British Empire under the names of the Orange River Colony, and the Transvaal.

CHAPTER LXXXV.

The British South Africa Company.

THE wonderful treasures of gold which had been found on the Rand naturally caused men to direct their search in other directions. Especial attention was turned to

the district between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, whence, thousands of years previously, the Phoenician traders had derived large supplies of gold for the ancient world; whence, it is supposed, King Solomon obtained his supplies of the precious metal.

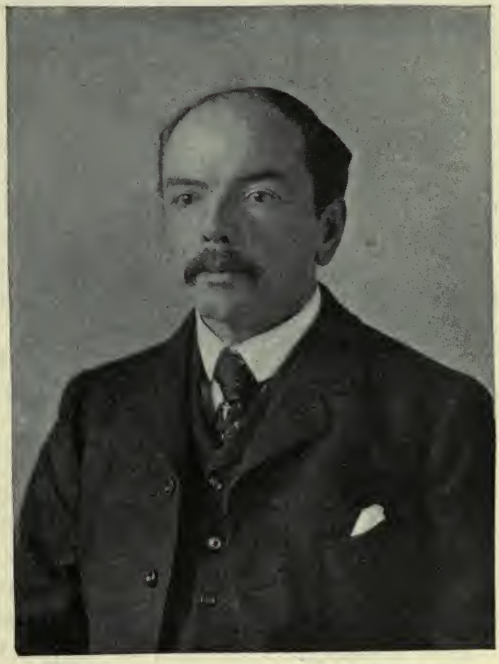


Photo by *Elliott & Fry.*
SIR LEANDER STARR JAMESON, BART.

The centre of the district is Mashonaland, a plateau dividing the watersheds of the Zambesi on the north and the Limpopo on the south, its high elevation making its climate healthy and invigorating. Mr. Selous, the big-game hunter, has described it as a land where "European children would grow up with rosy cheeks, and apples would not be flavourless."

The people who gave their name to the land were the Mashonas, a tribe of industrial Bantus, who, however, had succumbed to the military Bantus known as the Matabele Zulus.

When the latter had been turned out of their land

by the Boer trekkers in 1837, they directed their course to the peaceful vales of the Mashona country. The Mashonas, who were without skill in war, readily fell a prey to the fierce Zulu invaders, and soon vultures and hyenas completed the work begun by the relentless Matabeles. The once-smiling land, which had for ages supported a large number of people, was given back to Nature. It once more became a land where herds of elands and other antelopes might wander at will.

The Boers, who had been baffled in their attempts to get a footing in Bechuanaland, hoped to establish settlements in Mashonaland, but their design was suspected. A party of venturesome Englishmen, therefore, visited Lobengula, the King of the Matabeles, and secured from him the sole right to search for and work the minerals within his territory.

This was the origin of the British South Africa Company. Cecil Rhodes was the leading spirit in this new venture, whose object included the extension of the railway and telegraph systems northwards towards the Zambesi, the provision of homes for British settlers, and the development of trade for the home markets. With the full consent of Lobengula, a road was made 400 miles long to Fort Salisbury, spanning streams, fording rivers, and cutting through forests.

But Lobengula's actions, at times, left much to be desired. He still planned raids on the villages of the Mashonas, and even attacked those who were living under the protection of the Company. There could only be one end to such conduct. After a fight, his capital of Bulawayo was occupied by the Company's forces, and he himself perished later in flight.

The new province was named Rhodesia, and almost immediately witnessed a great increase of industrial

activity. Before *two* years had passed, there grew up a town of 2,000 inhabitants, with brick-built houses, less than a mile from the old king's kraal. Within *four* years, it witnessed the arrival of a train, which had steamed thither from Cape Town, a distance of 1,250 miles.



Photo by *Elliott & Fry.*

CECIL RHODES.

Soon after this, the treatment meted out by the Transvaal Government to the British settlers on the Rand caused Dr. Jameson to start from Mafeking with 600 troopers and ride towards Johannesburg.

His expedition ended in disaster, and a further result of his raid was the rising of the natives in Rhodesia, who again saw in the quarrels of the white man the opportunity to recover the ground they had lost.

Bulawayo was surrounded and cut off from the outer world. Relief was rapidly brought by Colonel Plumer, marching from Mafeking, and his rapidity saved the

situation. In order to end the war and save unnecessary bloodshed, a proclamation was issued, promising a free pardon to all the Matabeles who surrendered by a certain date.

As they showed some hesitation, Cecil Rhodes went to interview their chiefs. Unarmed, he proceeded to the Matoppo Range, although the fastnesses were swarming with armed natives; and, shutting his eyes to the fate that had befallen Pieter Retief and his comrades sixty years before in Dingaan's kraal, he discussed terms for five hours with the chiefs. His confidence convinced the natives that they could safely trust themselves in his hands, and they were induced to give in.

No fitter place could have been chosen for the burial of Rhodes, the great Empire builder, than the Matoppo Hills, the scene of one of the greatest triumphs that a man, single-handed, has ever won.

To Cecil Rhodes it was given to dream dreams of Empire, and he realised more than most the immense value of a Transcontinental railway from Cape Town to Cairo.

To-day, there is communication by telegraph from Cape Town by way of Salisbury and Cairo to London; and, in a few years, there is good reason to hope that passengers will be carried over the same route, through which messages are now flashed.

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

Africa a Sealed Book (Part I).

To Africa belongs the first place and the last in the scenes of colonization. It was but natural that settlers on the eastern and northern coasts of the Mediterranean Sea should strive to found settlements on the southern or

African shores of that sea. But though Africa was the seat of Phoenician and Grecian colonies, the heart of the continent remained unapproachable till most of the other land masses of the world had been overrun by the white races.

Why were Africa's secrets thus securely locked up? The answer must run into several causes. One is to be found in the position of its highlands and mountains. There is a remarkable absence of mountain groups, such as mightily influence the destinies of other continents. Much of the interior consists of plateau lands, whose outer edges, or terraces, are close to the coast line, and leave no room for large, low plains on the shore.

The Atlas Mountains form the one range which is at all like the mountain groups to be found outside Africa. On the east of the continent is to be found a belt of high ground which, with a few breaks, follows the whole of the coast-line. Another strip of plateau land runs parallel to the Gulf of Guinea.

The position of these highlands will help to explain the differences in rainfall over various districts. Areas of insufficient rainfall have become deserts, and, in many cases, these have shut off communication between neighbouring lands as completely as high mountain ranges.

The most numerous inhabitants of Africa are the Negroes, whose home lies in the belt of land running beside the Gulf of Guinea and continuing towards the centre of the continent. Yet, what power they might have had through their numbers was more than lost through their entire inability to combine in large bodies. They are split up into hundreds of tribes, constantly at war with one another, and their continual quarrels produced the many prisoners who fed the slave trade.

There can be little doubt that this slave traffic sprang up as soon as the black and the white races came into contact. The records of ancient Egypt show that slavery was practised 10,000 years ago, and that, though all prisoners of war, whether white or black, were turned into slaves, the black men always proved more contented and subservient.

There were four usual routes by which the land of the Negroes was approached. The easiest lay along the valley of the Nile, which gave ready approach by land as far south as the basin of the Bahr el Ghazal and the White Nile, where the river expanded into wide-extending swamps, choked with vegetation.

The next entrance into Negro-land lay across Arabia, through Abyssinia by a valley which led to Lake Rudolf, and thence by way of the snow-capped mountains of Kenia and Kilimanjaro to the heart of the continent.

A third course was along the Senegal River till the Niger was reached.

The fourth route lay along the high land which runs as a sort of mountain skeleton from the south of Tunis to the neighbourhood of Lake Chad. The latter road is noteworthy because it forms a sort of natural bridge across the Sahara Desert.

It is thought probable that the Negro race came through Syria and Arabia on their journey to Africa, where they peopled most of the continent. But after their arrival a great change began to take place in the surface of the land.

There was a great "drying-up" in many places. The lakes which were shallow began to evaporate, and leave in their stead deposits of salt and soda. The rivers no longer continued to flow above ground. Trees and plants withered and died.



Photo by *The International Publications Co.*

LOURENÇO MARQUES.

The land, being stripped of its vegetation, was at the mercy of the rain storms, which washed away the soil and thus produced greater extremes of climate, for the blazing heat of day and the bitter cold of night lacked the tempering influences given by plant life.

The extremes of heat and cold weathered the rocks, which cracked and crumbled. The same extremes caused powerful winds to blow, which helped to grind the crumbling rocks into sand.

In some such way as this were formed the great deserts of North Africa and Arabia, which, like an inhospitable sea, isolated the Africa of the tropics from the land bordering the Mediterranean, shut off the negroes from all intercourse with the civilization of Europe, and allowed them to remain in the degrading influences of savagery.

CHAPTER LXXXVII.

Africa a Sealed Book (Part II).

AFRICA'S rim of high ground round much of its coast-line and its insufficient rainfall over large areas will account for much of its position outside the reach of civilized man; but it has other hindrances to communication.

We have already seen that the land of the negroes is shut off from the Mediterranean region by the formidable Sahara. It is equally shut off from the outside world on the south by the dense forests which clothe the belt of land lying along the equator.

Previously, we have traced the movements of early man by way of river valleys in India, America, and Australia. But Africa is singularly unfortunate in its supply of rivers, and still more unfortunate in the fact

that its mighty rivers do not, as a rule, afford good highways from the coast into the interior.

The edges of the plateaux approach so close to the coast that even large rivers are blocked at a short distance from their mouths. Frequently the fall of the rivers from one terrace to the next is marked by a cataract or waterfall.

The Nile cataracts mark out the course of the river in definite stages. The bed of the Zambesi, where it descends from the great north-and-south plateau, forms the remarkable Victoria Falls, while its later course is so interrupted by cataracts and rapids that it is almost unfit for navigation. The Niger, also, has the middle part of its course impeded with cataracts and rapids.

Of the four large rivers of which Africa can boast, the Nile, the Congo, the Zambesi, and the Niger, the Nile alone holds out its hands to the Mediterranean lands. From the same tableland which supplies it with water flow also the Zambesi and the Congo, but these find their outlets in tropical seas ; while the Niger, which drains the east-and-west plateau, has the same disadvantage.

Diseases lurk in their deltas ; and there is usually a still further drawback to communication in the impenetrable network formed by the mangrove trees. These, which are among the curiosities of tropical life, thrive on marshy land, thrusting their branches downwards till they meet the ground where they proceed to take root.

Each root forms another plant, which again becomes a fresh centre of vegetable life. To the roots cling countless shell-fish, as mussels do to the piles of a pier.

In temperate climes man can in many directions subdue Nature to his will. Outside the temperate zone, Nature will not readily submit to his dictation. Thus

the regions of eternal ice and snow require men to spend most of their time in securing sufficient warmth and comfort for their bodies.

In the scorching tropical regions, Nature provides abundant supplies of food, and clothing is not a pressing



THE MANGROVE IN ITS NATIVE SWAMPY HOME.

need, but at the same time she denies man the energy with which to harness her forces. Moreover, she has always at hand plagues and pestilences, which require that men shall walk warily.

The negroes of Africa, however, are able to thrive in lands which are hot-beds of disease for the white man ;

and, as the former are also possessed of great strength of body, they are fit for sustained labour where the white man is incapable of exertion.

Yet the negroes, with their powerful bodies, are lacking in strength of mind, and they quickly become the docile slaves of the white man. Nothing perhaps shows better how far they were behind civilized races than their entire ignorance of the construction of roads, such as were made by Europeans. Africa had its caravan tracks across the desert, whose course was marked by the line of the whitened bones of camels. It had also its bush paths through the dense forests, which allowed of movement in single file. But these complete the list of its means of communication by land. There were no wheeled carriages, and loads had to be carried by the natives on their heads.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

West African Settlements (Part I).

Though much of the interior of Africa was a sealed book, there were times when secrets filtered through to the outside world. The Greeks, who carried to Egypt their beautiful pottery and bronze metal-work, heard whispers of the mighty Niger River, the stream of fresh water beyond the Sahara Desert, where dwelt black people amid an abundant vegetation, and where roamed immense numbers of wild beasts.

But it was left for the Moslem Arabs in the seventh century to pierce the veil. After securing their hold on the North of Africa, they proceeded southward along the Atlantic coast till they reached the mouth of the Senegal in the tenth century. They were in search of black slaves in these regions; though the chief

attraction for them was the gold which was said to exist in the forest districts of Ashanti.

This information had come to them while they were masters in Sicily. Starting from Tunis, a line of somewhat elevated land will be found, stretching towards the south-west, and marked by a line of oases. The line of elevated land leads towards Timbuctoo, which was a most important intermediate station between the land of the negroes and the countries north of the Sahara.

At Timbuctoo was collected the gold of Ashanti, the salt of the western Sahara, the cotton goods of the Sudan, and vast numbers of negro slaves; and, for a long number of years, the trade from Inner Africa was in the hands of these Arabs, who brought to the Mediterranean shores ivory, spices, ostrich feathers, and leopard skins, in addition to the products mentioned above.

The Arabs built up the slave trade; but against the harm which they did in this direction must be placed the good gained through their introduction of the rice-plant and sugar-cane from India, and possibly their bringing-in of the cotton plant.

They had therefore paved the way for the Portuguese, who, following up the Moors, after their expulsion from Portugal, pursued the path of discovery. From Southern Portugal they followed them into Morocco, where Prince Henry of Portugal, the grandson of the English John of Gaunt, heard of the gold, the spices, the pepper, the enormous numbers of elephants, and the handsome cotton cloths woven by the industrious folk in Negro-land.

This caused him to turn his attention to a course over the sea, by which he might open up trade with the Guinea Coast and obtain its products. We have reminders of these times in the names of the Grain

(pepper) Coast, the Ivory Coast, the Gold Coast, and the Slave Coast.

The other nations of Western Europe soon heard of the good fortune which had come to the Portuguese, and the English, the Dutch and the French came forward to share in the spoils. The slave trade was of the greatest value, for it was only through the employment of negroes that the West India Islands could be developed by Europeans.

But it soon became evident that a heavy price would have to be paid for this West African trade. The low-lying coastal districts were so unhealthy that they deservedly gained the name of the "white man's grave," and an old sailors' rhyme used to run—

"Beware, take care of the Bight of Benin,
Where for one that comes out, there are forty stay in."

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

West African Settlements (Part II).

The slave trade promised such gain that there was great rivalry among the English ports to secure it. London had companies of merchants whose rights of trade were given by charters. But many private adventurers of Bristol would not agree to an arrangement which excluded *them*, and, in direct conflict with the terms of the charters which had been granted to the London merchants, they fitted out their ships to share in the trade; and Liverpool adventurers later were able to outbid their other British rivals. This they did because Manchester assisted their trade with its supply of coarse checks and silk handkerchiefs.

The chief trading stations in early times were

Cape Coast Castle, and another on a rocky islet at the mouth of the Gambia, named Fort James in honour of King James I.

Towards the middle of the eighteenth century, the people of England strongly objected to the continuance of the slave trade, and in their desire for its abolition they were assisted by an important decision of the Law Courts. Many American planters had been in the habit of visiting England and bringing with them their domestic slaves. The judges now asserted that slavery on British soil was impossible. As soon as a slave set his foot in the British Isles, he was a free man.

The decision at once released all the slaves who were staying in England with their owners. Having to choose between payment to their old slaves and the engagement of ordinary servants, the American planters chose the latter and allowed their freed slaves to look out for fresh employment.

This created another difficulty, because the black men fell into the ranks of the unemployed, and the Government of the day had to arrange that they should be sent back to their old home in the West of Africa. The station to which they were sent had the best harbour on the Atlantic seaboard, and was given the name of Freetown, while the district in which it was situated gained the name of Liberia (the land of liberty).

Some thirty years later, when slavery became unlawful throughout the whole of the British dominions, the freed slaves were taken to Liberia from the West Indies.

The abolition of the slave trade completely changed the outlook of the West African possessions. The slave traffic of centuries had ruined the strip of land which fringed the coast, and it was clear that fresh sources of prosperity must be looked for.

Scheme after scheme was tried without success. Trading companies lost heart, and the Government became so lukewarm that in 1865 Parliament considered a suggestion that every West African settlement, with the exception of Sierra Leone, should be abandoned.

From taking this disastrous and weak-spirited step the British were saved by the behaviour of the people of Ashanti. There, the negro tribes had at last learned the value of combination, and proceeded to conquer their neighbours on the coast—nay, more, they even put forward a claim to the whole of the Gold Coast itself.



Photo by *Elliott & Fry.*

FIELD-MARSHAL VISCOUNT WOLSELEY, K.P., O.M.

Under these circumstances, Captain Maclean, on behalf of the English merchants, had driven them behind the river Prah, and established a protectorate over about 8,000 square miles of territory. This was as far back as 1831,

and for forty years the Ashantis had respected the power of their English conquerors.

It is true they sulked, and would only trade with the Dutch forts on the Gold Coast. But, in 1871, the Dutch, tiring of their stations in West Africa, decided to withdraw from them, and the King of Ashanti then marched against the British post at Cape Coast Castle.

Sir Garnet Wolseley, who had led the Red River expedition in Canada, was sent against the King. He burned his capital of Kumasi, and, after an abject submission, the Ashanti army divided itself among a number of weak chieftains who had to look to Britain for guidance and protection. Thus once more, as had been the case in South Africa, the British Government had been forced into the position of protector of the native races.

But by this time the requirements of various industries were pointing to West Africa as a most valuable possession. It has large supplies of india-rubber, a product of the widest modern use, essential to the manufacture of telegraph cables, telephones and electric lighting; in fact, wherever electricity is employed, there india-rubber is wanted. It also enters into the composition of tyres for cycles and motor-cars, and is necessary for waterproof garments; so extensive are its uses at the present time that our day has been called the "Rubber Age."

Another important product of West Africa is palm oil, which is used for the lubrication of machinery and for the manufacture of soap. The place held by this commodity among the exports from West Africa can be estimated by the fact that the many mouths through which the Niger discharges itself into the sea are often spoken of as the "Oil Rivers."

Yet, even with the growing importance of Nigeria,

the British Government refused to extend its protection till its hands were forced by the Royal Niger Company. It was almost too late, for France and Germany were casting envious glances on the district. The man who gave Britain her last chance, and secured for her the land, was the life and soul of the Company, Sir George Goldie.

CHAPTER XC.

East Africa.

We have already noticed the slave trade in West Africa, which was carried on *by* Europeans *for* Europeans. There was a corresponding slave trade in East Africa which was not associated with them.

The Dutch colonies in the Malay Archipelago needed no labourers from outside. India was well supplied with industrious husbandmen. Australia was undeveloped and apparently incapable of development.

But slaves were required for domestic purposes in Persia and the Turkish dominions, and the Arabs came forward to supply this demand.

The influences of this slave trade were as blighting on the east coast as it was on the west. In 1824, Captain Owen, when engaged on some work of surveying, saw an opportunity of adding to the Empire a long strip of the East African coast, which he hoped would then move onwards in the path of civilization, and possibly grow into a second India.

But the British of that day had not forgotten the loss of the American colonies. They feared that their responsibilities were already greater than their capabilities, and the chance of securing the foothold indicated by Captain Owen was lost.

Some time afterwards, Germany stepped in, and it was only by ceding to her Heligoland that Britain secured the recognition of rights in the Protectorate of Zanzibar. These are now restricted to the island off the coast, which, however, has a magnificent central position, and controls a large part of the trade, as was once shown by its being the centre of the slave traffic.

It is probable that in the near future Zanzibar will be overshadowed by Mombasa, the capital of British East Africa, whose importance depends on its communication with Lake Victoria Nyanza by means of a railway. This line has been constructed with infinite labour through the eastern highlands, and there is little doubt it will more than repay itself in the benefits it will confer on civilization.

Whenever in tropical lands Nature is prodigal of streams and lakes, man is able to make his way along the courses they indicate. But where the assistance of river valleys is entirely lacking, and where there is, in addition, the positive hindrance of dense jungle and prickly shrub, man's difficulties in finding his way from point to point are almost insurmountable.

Nature's entrance into the interior of Africa from the eastern coast is by way of the Zambesi River and its tributary the Shiré. This route leads to the African chain lakes, the southernmost one, Lake Nyasa, being joined by the Shiré River to the Zambesi. This route, for purposes of navigation, however, is spoiled by the fact that the course of the Shiré is interrupted by the series of waterfalls known as the Murchison Cataracts.

The idea of a chain leads us at once to think of the North American Lakes, and to wonder whether the African lakes are strung together by one great river. In

this, they differ from those of North America. There is no water communication between Nyasa and its neighbour Tanganyika. The latter is the longest lake in the world, but its chief distinction is its position in a gigantic depression.

Around its sides, mountains of 10,000 feet in height rise to the region of perpetual snow and render the scenery sublime. Tanganyika is called the "heart of Africa" because it is the central connecting link between the basin of the Zambesi on the south, and that of the Nile on the north.

Most of the work in opening-up the region of the great African Lakes fell to the lot of Britons, chief among whom were Livingstone and Stanley. But Livingstone's work was not confined to mere exploration and discovery. With his "seeing eye" he foretold that it would be possible, through the possession of the great lakes, to stifle the slave trade at its source; that Africa, with care and attention, would be capable of producing the same things as India; that the teeming races of tropical Africa were waiting to become some of Britain's best customers. In 1857 his announcement of these prospects was but the voice of one crying in the wilderness.

Since his death, the world, inspired by his example, has taken his advice, which has resulted in furthering the suppression of the slave trade, developing commercial undertakings, exploring the land from shore to shore, and extending missionary enterprise. Through her explorers, Britain has proved her title to the possession of these parts.

In years to come, when Africa will have taken a foremost place among the continents, intelligent Africans will look back on David Livingstone as Englishmen regard King Alfred, and as Americans revere George Washington.

CHAPTER XCI.

Egypt.

MANY features combine to make Egypt one of the most wonderful lands on earth. It holds the position of a bridge between East and West. Its soil is of extraordinary fertility, although its fields are entirely without rain. They have to depend on the vast stores of water which have been collected in the centre of Africa, and which are brought to them by the river Nile. In the words of the oldest of historians, "Egypt is the gift of the Nile." Where the influence of the river extends, there can be found the dark fertile soil which gave to Egypt its earliest name of the "Black Land."

Beyond the range to which the influence of the Nile extends there stretch the glittering white sands of the desert. In the hills which bound its basin on the east is to be found abundance of stone, which, in the dry atmosphere, is able to defy the ravages of time.

On the marshy lands at the mouth of the Nile grows the papyrus from which "paper" was made, and on the monuments of stone and the sheets of papyrus has been preserved the early history of Egypt, which has but recently been partly unravelled before the eyes of the modern world.

The land has a wonderful fascination in its great age, its mystery, and its fertility, so that it is not surprising to find Napoleon saying most emphatically, "Egypt is the most important country in the world."

It was Napoleon, you will remember, who directed Britain's attention to the danger that would threaten India were Egypt to fall into hostile hands.

We have seen in a previous chapter the circumstances under which the British were induced to take possession



THE NILE VALLEY AND THE ASSOUAN DAM.

of the Cape in order to safeguard the sea-route to India. In the middle of the nineteenth century there was a growing desire to quicken communication between England and India. This was partly the outcome of the use of steam for travelling, and it led to the construction of railways in Lower Egypt so that mails and passengers might be conveyed by this "overland route."

Attention was, at the same time, directed to the value of a canal through the Isthmus of Suez. People throughout Europe came forward to subscribe the necessary money for the enterprise, for it was felt that Egypt was well worthy of the expenditure of the capital.

But money was needed not only for the canal. The Pasha or ruler at that time was a heedless spendthrift, who, in thirteen years, had increased the debt of his country from £3,000,000 to £89,000,000. Thus he was compelled to sell Egypt's shares in the Suez Canal, and these were purchased by Britain.

The opening of the canal came at a most convenient time. Australia was just feeling the rise of prosperity which had come to it from its wealth of gold. Steamships had come into use; and, whereas sailing ships had previously avoided the Red Sea because its narrowness did not allow sufficient room for tacking, steamships were now anxious to use the shorter route because of the great saving in the consumption of coal.

When the Pasha of Egypt had brought his country to the verge of bankruptcy, Britain and France stepped in to manage his affairs, and this Dual Control continued till the rebellion of Arabi Pasha in 1882. France then refused to undertake the work of restoring order, and this was left to the British, who informed the other Powers of Europe that their troops would remain in Egypt till their presence was no longer necessary.

Reforms and improvements were at once started. Chief among these was the establishment of irrigation, so that by husbanding the waters of the Nile in the time of flood, they could be made use of when the stream was low. Britons who had studied the problems of irrigation in India were brought to Egypt, and produced some remarkable results. A great increase was secured in the cotton crop, a most important one for Egypt, where every acre is able to yield twice as much cotton as an acre in America, and where the quality is superior to any other in the world.

After dealing with the lands near the delta, the engineers turned their attention to Upper Egypt, and decided to construct a dam across the Nile at its first cataract, a few miles above Assouan.

By these means, the produce of the land has been greatly multiplied, but the controlling of the waters has done more than expand Egypt's prosperity. It has shown the poor, ignorant Egyptian husbandman that the British are his greatest friends, and made him not only submit willingly to their rule, but pray that it may continue.

The engineers, after regulating the waters of the Nile, so as to make it available in the dry season, have since been able to find a way of increasing the Nile's water supply. Their chance came after the re-occupation of the Sudan, when the reign of law and order was established there.

The main stream of the Upper River brings the waters of the great central lakes of Africa to Lake No, which is about 600 miles south of Khartoum. In this region, the main stream, called the Bahr-el-Jebel, had for long ages been choked by a dense growth of water-weed called the "sudd." This sudd had forced the river into

numerous side channels and marshes, so that an immense quantity of water was lost through evaporation.

The sudd was cut, and as a result steamers can now go from Khartoum into the very heart of Africa. But the benefit will not stop there. It is hoped that means will be found to confine the river within a single stream, and thus prevent a further enormous waste of water.

If this is done, the summer supply of Egypt will be again largely increased, and the prosperity of the land will be raised to a greater height than has ever been possible before.

CHAPTER XCII.

Links in the Chain of Empire.

AMONG the Empire Builders of the world, the Romans must be given a foremost place, and their greatness appears, not only in the magnitude and permanency of their work, but also in the attention they paid to the smallest details of their schemes. Their military settlements, wherever placed, were always joined together by great highways, and these roads were guarded by forts at every junction.

The British have proved themselves even greater Empire Builders than the Romans, and their success is the more remarkable because they appear to have worked on no definite plan. By accident rather than by design, their colonies have been established in all quarters of the world, and what strikes us as perhaps more wonderful still, step by step they have unwittingly acquired a series of stations which are the links in an endless chain. The Romans, in times of old, connected their land routes by a chain of defences. The British, in modern days, have forged similar bonds on the ocean.

India has ever been the prize which the nations of the world have tried to win, and as the roads to India are not far distant from the most powerful countries of modern times, it is necessary to equip on them stations at frequent intervals, and render them as formidable as possible.

In olden times, when the journey to India had to be undertaken in sailing ships, it was sufficient for the way to India round the Cape of Good Hope to be protected by stations at Ascension, St. Helena, Cape Town, and on the island of Mauritius.

The names of Ascension and St. Helena are noteworthy, because they testify to the religious festivals on which they were discovered, and thus point to the work of the Portuguese.

In this summary of ours relating to the outposts of the Empire, we shall notice what a large proportion are islands, and a little thought will show us how much more defensible such positions are than stations on the mainland. But, in the strength that comes from isolation, Ascension and St. Helena hold the palm.

St. Helena, named after the mother of Constantine, was acquired by the East India Company in 1651, and the company used every effort to make it the "Gibraltar of the South Atlantic"; so that when a choice had to be made of a most remote possession on which to imprison Napoleon Bonaparte, the selection naturally fell on St. Helena. This was in 1815; in the same year the British took possession also of Ascension Island, which up to that time had been unoccupied.

The second route to India lies along the Mediterranean, and passes through the Suez Canal. It is guarded along its course by Gibraltar, Malta and Aden.

Gibraltar is a most valuable station because of its

position at the entrance to the Mediterranean, and because its massive rock, rising 1,439 feet above the sea, allows of the construction of fortifications of immense strength.

Aden, in a similar way, guards the entrance to the Red Sea, which may be considered as an extension of the Mediterranean, since the Suez Canal has connected the two.

The third route to India lies in the possibilities of the future. It runs through Syria and along the valley of the Euphrates to the Persian Gulf. In the case of this one, Britain, in marked contrast to her usual belated actions, has made provision. She has acquired the island of Cyprus in the Mediterranean, the island of Bahrein in the Persian Gulf, a station at Muscat, and the coastal strip of Baluchistan.

All these routes to India have their extensions to China and Australia, and the defences of the roads to the Far East have been mentioned in previous chapters.

The great ocean tracks that run east and west across the North Atlantic are continued westward by the Canadian Pacific Railway. They then stretch across the North Pacific till the continent of Asia is reached. Along this route there is little land that is hostile to Britain, and the line is sufficiently guarded by the Canadian ports, Bermuda, Esquimalt on Vancouver Island, and Hong Kong.

The value of Bermuda as a coaling station, and a station for the British fleet, may be estimated from the fact that it is so isolated that no island can be used as a set-off against it. It is mid-way between Newfoundland and the West India Islands. Its harbour is defended in a natural way by the dangerous reefs in the neighbourhood.



By permission of *The Royal Mail Steam Packet Co.*

BERMUDA.

Esquimalt has an extensive harbour fortified at the joint expense of the British and Canadian Governments.

The trade route to South America has a convenient port of call in the Falkland Islands, where provisions and fresh water can be obtained, but, just as the Cape route was neglected after the opening of the Suez Canal, so it is highly probable that when the Panama Canal is completed, the way to the Pacific round Cape Horn will be little used.

The important highway of the future through the Caribbean Sea and the tropical Pacific will be well watched in British interests. It will be guarded by Jamaica at one end, and by the Fiji Islands at the other.

It will thus link itself up with the southern extensions of the routes to India, and complete the girdle of British islands running round the world.

CHAPTER XCIII.

Other Links in the Chain (Part I).

WHILE the various stepping-stones over the sea allow Britain to have ready communication with her daughter lands, it is necessary also to have means by which the different parts of the same colony or dependency can be brought into contact with each other.

This is effected by railways, and, just as Roman roads enabled their makers to safeguard their conquests, and even to extend them, so railways have been the greatest factor in bringing lands under the influences of civilization.

Before the advent of the iron horse, India was a huge, unwieldy continent separated into almost as many districts as it has natural divisions. The mighty works of Nature produced almost as complete isolation as that

produced on the social side by the caste system. This isolation in matters of exchange was so far reaching that each village lived unto itself.

Surrounded by its cultivated fields or its uncultivated jungle land, it remained self-sufficing, until its population became too dense for its resources, when it would send off a swarm to form a new centre of industry. Such isolation tended to check altogether national trade, and left the villagers helpless in times of war, famine, or pestilence.

Railways have, however, broken down all such barriers between district and district, and have produced a unity, and a feeling of unity, which would once have been considered impossible. There is now a ready interchange of goods.

The villager, instead of having to make his own clothes, and to content himself with the produce of his own narrow circle, can dispose of his surplus stock, and with the proceeds obtain what outside produce he desires. Trade has in this way grown by leaps and bounds. Famine is no longer allowed to stalk through a stricken area like a gaunt spectre. As soon as the necessity arises, relief is sent over the railway to the starving.

But not only is the railway the daily provider, and the ready deliverer in seasons of trial, but in times of emergency it can be made the national preserver. In the days of the East India Company, Calcutta, Madras and Bombay were separate centres, each working out more or less its own salvation. Now, by means of the railway, all three are linked together. Formerly, it was essential for the retention of India that the capital should be a base near the sea. Now, with additional communications from Bombay, Delhi is perhaps even more suitable than Calcutta.

The history of Canadian railways is perhaps even more striking. In 1867, when the federation of the provinces was being arranged, it was felt extremely inconvenient that the west should be shut off from the east. There was no ready communication between the northern shores of Lake Superior and British Columbia. One of the first works, therefore, of the newly-formed Canadian Government was to set to work to bridge this gap. But the completion of the railway did more than connect the eastern provinces of Quebec and Ontario with the prairie provinces of Manitoba and Alberta, and these again with the mining province of British Columbia.

Towns and villages at once sprang up at intervals along the route. Homesteads began to peep out over the face of the country. Net-works of branch railways sprang off from the trunk, and farmers began to push out into the still unpeopled territories. Wherever the railway appeared, colonization advanced apace.

But we are not only concerned with the development which has followed in the wake of the Canadian Pacific Railway. It has filled a most important place in the links of Empire, for the Company, not content with its victories on land, proceeded to build a fleet of high-class passenger steamers to connect the end of their line at Vancouver with Australasia, China and Japan.

CHAPTER XCIV.

Other Links in the Chain (Part II).

AUSTRALIA has the same tale to tell of the rapid expansion which followed the construction of its railways. There, as in other of the British colonies, the railways are the property of the State, and such is the belief of the Australian Government in their value that, for the number

of its population, there is no country in the world which is so well supplied with them as the Island Continent.

In fact, Australia is better supplied with railways than with roads, so that it is a matter of frequent remark that longer distances can be traversed more easily and quickly than shorter ones.

The course of Canada's development along the belt of land running from east to west has been absolutely fixed by Nature. Australia has no such line of development; but the fact that Cook's instinct was right in fixing upon a centre near Botany Bay is shown by the way in which the lines on the east radiate from Sydney.

Small causes often lead to mighty results, and, when South Australia agreed to take over the Northern Territory, it conceived the project of connecting the extremes of its colony by a line from Adelaide to Port Darwin. It was a work which resembled in difficulty the task undertaken by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company in crossing the Rockies.

But, whereas, in one case, the difficulty consisted in piercing lofty mountains, in the other it resolved itself into finding a way over rocky wastes, devoid of both pasture and water. But its construction will be well worth the trouble involved, for it will provide an important link between British America and China.

We have already in a previous chapter referred to the differences which mark Australia off from New Zealand, and to these must be added the further one that, whereas the directions taken by the railways in Australia have in many cases been largely dictated by man, in New Zealand they have been usually dictated by Nature.

In each case the effect has been to increase the prosperity of the land; and in the case of New Zealand,

which had to face a native problem, the iron roads have assisted in the establishment of peace within its borders. In South Island, the west coast is too broken for railways, which have therefore been made to pass along the east and north-eastern coasts. Along this route the food supplies of the Canterbury Plains are carried to the miners of the South and West.

In North Island, each of the important centres of Auckland and Wellington has been made the starting-point for railway construction, either along the coast or along the river valleys, but owing to the disposition of the hills the distance between the two towns has not yet been spanned.

It was left for Africa to show the best object lesson on the value of railroads in the civilization of mankind. As we have seen, Africa includes within itself all the difficulties which are usually met with singly in the other continents. The St. Lawrence has rapids and falls to hinder its use for communication by water, but the large African rivers have still more.

The steep gradients of New South Wales which require more powerful locomotives than any to be found in the United Kingdom, have their parallel in South Africa, where the land rises step by step to the interior.

The mountain gorges in North America, which almost proved too much for the skill of the engineers, have their counterpart in those of the eastern highlands of Africa, which have had to be pierced by the railways which run from Durban, Delagoa Bay, Beira and Mombasa into the interior.

In older days, the only means of transit in South Africa was a sluggish team of twenty or more oxen toiling with their waggon up some steep ascent, or ploughing

their way through a sandy road. In tropical Africa goods had to be transported on the heads of natives.

Now the brisk railway train is stirring up activity in all directions, and it is not too much to hope that in a few years there will be completed a line that will run from Cape Town to Cairo. Already long lengths have been laid at either end. In Egypt it extends to Khartoum and the Sudan. In the South, it runs to the north of Rhodesia. When extended, it will pass the south-east corner of Lake Tanganyika to the western shores of Lake Victoria Nyanza, and then roughly follow the course of the White Nile.

The natives of Central Africa are proving themselves adaptable workers, ready to submit themselves to discipline, and thus there is good reason to hope that they will become eager co-operators in the work of bringing their land within reach of civilization. Thus, step by step, the Indian Ocean is becoming more and more a British sea, with India at its apex, and British influences extending along its shores.

CHAPTER XCV.

The Resources of the British Empire.

A GLANCE at early man will show us at once how meagre were his means. If he were fortunate enough to secure sufficient food to sustain life, and water to satisfy his thirst, some protection against dampness and the excesses of heat and cold, and, lastly, adequate defence against animals dangerous to life and limb, he had to be content.

But, with the improvements due to better intercourse, with increasing knowledge of strange men and other climes, man's wants began to widen, till now he desires

commodities drawn from all quarters of the globe. His present demands comprise not only a sufficiency of food, but a variety in that sufficiency. His tastes have been cultivated so that he no longer accepts coarse foods and simple drinks, but requires those with attractive flavours. His weapons have become so deadly that with them he does not hesitate to face the fiercest of animal foes.



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BANANA GROVE, BRISBANE.

Britain has had a large share in opening up the world's resources and in arranging for the interchange of those things which minister to man's comfort and enjoyment, and in this work some of the choicest regions in the world have fallen to her lot.

In the forefront of a people's concern must always appear provision for a regular supply of food stuffs. In the temperate zone, wheat is the principal food, and,

fortunately for itself, the British Empire contains within itself the chief granaries of the world. In Canada immense crops can be raised. The harvests in New Zealand are also most plenteous, and though Australian wheat is small in yield, owing to the character of the country, the extensive farms more than compensate for the deficiency in yield per acre, and in quality its grain will take a place with the best that can be grown elsewhere.

The wheat of the Punjab and northern Deccan is sufficient to make the Indian supply one of the largest in the world's market.

What wheat is to the inhabitants of temperate zones, rice is to the dwellers in the tropics. This plant requires great heat and complete immersion in water at certain stages of its growth, so that the lands around the mouths of the Ganges and Irrawaddy, and the deltaic lands in West Africa are well fitted for its production.

Fruits play a large part in the provision of food. In Central Africa they form the staple diet, while throughout the world they form most welcome additions to other foods. Year by year the lands under the British flag are increasing their reputation for the production of fruit.

The vine has been introduced into Cape Colony and found to thrive exceedingly. South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales have learned how to produce wines which will compete with the best of those from the vineyards of France and Spain.

In the matter of perishable articles like fruit it is a great advantage to have constant and regular supplies. The lands in the southern hemisphere are able to send their fruit to market when the supplies of the northern hemisphere have been used up. Thus, apples are now extensively grown in Tasmania to supplement the crops

derived from the orchards of Ontario and Eastern Canada. Australia and Cape Colony produce large quantities of pears and peaches. Bananas and pine-apples are grown in Queensland to add to the supply from Further India and the West Indies. Oranges now arrive from Jamaica



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PINE-APPLES ON BLACKALL RANGE, QUEENSLAND.

and New South Wales, whereas once they were wholly derived from the lands around the Mediterranean.

In their stores of all kinds of timber, the lands of the British Empire are equally blessed. Of the wood used for roofing and flooring and for all ordinary rough work, the supplies of Canada are almost inexhaustible.

British Burmah supplies teak, a wood of the highest value for shipbuilding, especially when used as a backing for iron plates where oak is unsuitable. The eucalyptus

tree of Australia provides timber which is unsurpassed for paving blocks, or for piles which have to be sunk in water. Scented woods, such as sandal-wood, and ornamental woods, such as mahogany and ebony, are all to be found within the British Dominions. The kauri pine of New Zealand supplies excellent varnish.

Space fails, however, to tell in detail of the other wonderful resources placed at Britain's command, of the wool, meat and hides in Australia, New Zealand and Cape Colony, of the hair and tallow derived from various quarters, of the rubber from Ceylon and the Malay Peninsula, of the tea from Ceylon, the coffee from Uganda, and the cocoa from Trinidad and Jamaica.

The earliest visitors to Britain came in search of tin, but the wealthiest tin mines now are in the Malay Peninsula, and under British control. The Spaniards used up all their energies in securing the gold of Mexico and California, but the mines of Australia and South and West Africa have produced far more than the mines of America.

For the rest, we must content ourselves with saying that Britain is ever ready to assist her daughter dependencies by buying the produce they have to spare, and by sending them in return the goods which have been manufactured in her mills and workshops.

CHAPTER XCVI.

Conclusion.

Because of the harmony of their parts, and because of their boundless resources, the colonies of the British Empire are in a position to establish a brotherhood or federation based on mutual interests. This union

becomes more and more possible each year according as means of communication are increased, and intercourse between portion and portion improved.

Canada first showed the way to federation, although her provinces were so scattered. Australia, with greater difficulties of climate to contend with, but free from race jealousies, has followed the example of Canada. The South African States, with difficulties equal to those of Canada and Australia combined, have now entered into a bond of fellowship. The trend of events indicates a still grander federation.

Whatever the morrow has in store for the Empire, every British subject should see to it that so far as lies in his power the future shall in no way be overshadowed by the past.

Every act of uprightness, every stand for truth and honour, will help to enlarge the Empire's bounds and prolong its life. In this way all the sons of Britain have the opportunity of becoming partners with the Empire builders of the past, who in their efforts were ofttimes quite unconscious of the great destiny to which they were called.

Yet, while it was given to them to be "strong in will to strive, to seek, to find and not to yield," there was a shaping of their rough-hewn purposes which led towards a perfected whole, and which warrants the belief that

"The whole round world is every way
Bound by gold chains about the feet of God."

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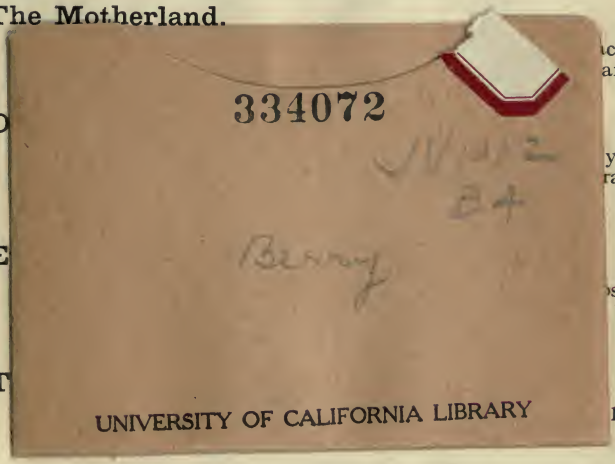
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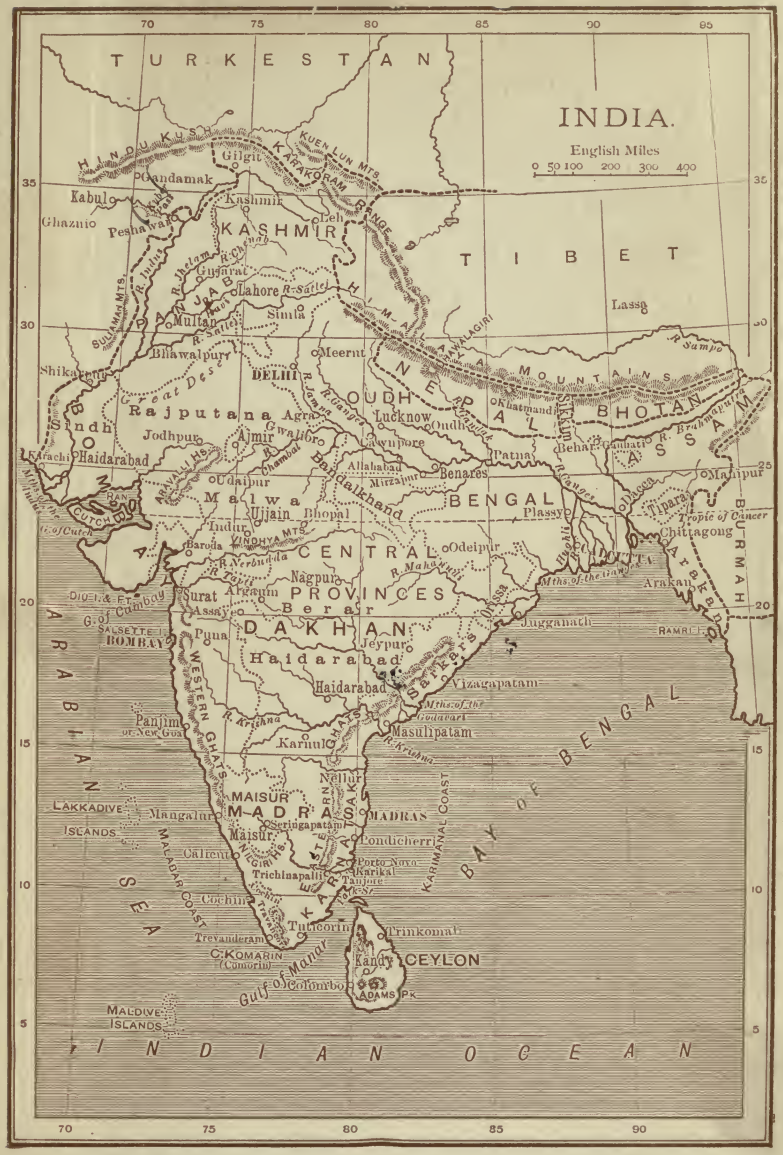
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